

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1873.

The Week.

THE *Alabama* Claims were finally settled on Tuesday week, after twelve years of eventful controversy, by the payment to Mr. Fish by Sir Edward Thornton and Mr. Archibald of a certificate for \$15,500,000 in gold, which was immediately converted into a United States bond of a similar amount, to await the action of Congress with regard to the distribution. On this point it is to be hoped something manly and straightforward will be done next session, under the influence of the purer breezes which seem to have begun to blow in politics. The transfer of the money has been effected very skilfully, and with little or no disturbance to the market.

The most singular delusion of the past year, and it has witnessed a good many, came to an end on Wednesday. The proprietors of the *Daily Graphic*, a new illustrated paper, partly comic and partly artistic, published in this city, have been for some months announcing the despatch of an enormous balloon, constructed at their own expense, across the Atlantic, on a "current" of air supposed by Professor Wise, the aeronaut, to flow constantly to the eastward at a certain altitude. The Professor himself was to command it, and it was to have a wonderful car, with a sailing-boat slung below it to provide for accidents in mid-ocean. That it was an advertising device, was patent from the beginning; that the balloon would never start, or, if it did, would descend at Nantucket or in New Jersey, was what the experience of mankind justified us all in believing. Nevertheless, the farce of preparation was kept up with great energy. Persons of distinction were invited in considerable numbers to cross the ocean in the car, but all declined, and, when the machine was ready, it was duly exhibited to paying visitors. It was then discovered that it had been improperly constructed; that the material was cheap and poor; that the aeronaut's advice had been disregarded in the manufacture; and that, in fact, there was no strong evidence whatever that it had ever been meant to quit the earth. It accordingly duly burst when it was about half full of gas, and after some thousands of dollars had been made by showing it. The whole performance was worthy of Barnum, and as the final collapse took place in the presence of a great crowd of spectators, it must rejoice Barnum to see how deep and strong the public gullibility continues to be. It is worth notice that a mock prospectus of a projected newspaper, published by *Punch* nearly twenty years ago, promised a weekly balloon ascent from the door of the office as one of the attractions of the new journal.

A meeting, rather thinly attended, of the merchants and others interested in the transportation problem, was held in this city on Wednesday week. A good many speeches were made, and a long string of resolutions passed. The speeches were mainly devoted to an exposition of the injury inflicted on the commerce of New York by the want of sufficient means of communication with the West, and by the bad management of the existing railroads and canals. There was a good deal of denunciation of "rings," "monopolists," and politicians of the kind now so common at the farmers' meetings in the West, but the most interesting feature in the proceedings of such a meeting was, of course, the remedy suggested for the evils so freely exposed. This, we regret to say, was not what one might have expected from a meeting of business-men. The resolutions are in the main composed of the well-known generalities of the political platform, and the sole suggestion having a practical air about it was an assertion that the production of the country requires the construction of double-track railways, exclusively for freight, across the continent. We now suggest that another meeting be held, at which

the speakers be directed to answer the following questions fairly and squarely. Whence is the money to come to construct this railroad? If supplied by a joint-stock corporation, is it to own and manage the road? If so, will it be allowed to fix its own charges? If not, who will fix them? If fixed by Government, by what rule? Will they have to be such as always to enable the farmer to sell his products in New York at the market price, no matter how low that price may be? If the company loses by this, who will compensate the stockholders and assure them a fair interest on their capital? If the Government does so, will it not be by taxation for the benefit of a class? Why should we pay taxes to enable the Illinois farmer to get his corn cheaply to market any more than to enable him to buy crack ploughs or reapers, or cart it to the barn? In short, what is "the transportation problem" about which you talk so much? As you describe it thus far, does it not bear strong marks of being a branch of the ancient and larger problem, how to get money without working for it, or, in other words, how to live at other people's expense?

The *Tribune* has had another striking letter from its correspondent in the West, this time from St. Louis, expounding the farmers' grievances. In Missouri, he finds there is no complaint against the railroads at all; there, the cause of the farmers' woes, the reason why they have to work so hard and to mortgage their farms, is the existence of the national banks. In Iowa, on the other hand, it is not so much the railroads who trouble them as the middlemen, who buy up their produce, and into whose hands they say the railroads play. It begins to be very clear that if Congress protects the farmers against all their enemies—the railroads, the banks, the judges, the makers of agricultural implements, the carriage-makers and piano-makers, and the peddlers, who are now "devouring their substance"—the executive department of the Government will be kept pretty busy. Every farmer will have to have an official guardian to see that he sells his corn and pork dear, and buys his clothes and furniture and tools and justice cheap, and gets his money at low rates on poor security. It is a terrible pity that the cause of real and practical railroad reform should run the risk, which it now appears to run, of being smothered up and lost sight of in vague and visionary discontent. But we cannot help believing that after the first froth of the agitation has subsided, the limits of the practicable will become more clearly visible, and we shall have a rational attempt, not to carry people's goods at the public expense or the expense of their neighbors, but to reform the management of corporations.

It seems to be acknowledged on all hands that Boston and Philadelphia and Baltimore are drawing to them a larger and larger proportion of the Western produce, owing in part to cheaper or, what is the same thing, more rapid transportation, and in part to the want of better facilities for unloading and shipping at New York. In fact, the railroad men who have been examined by the Senatorial Committee ascribe the whole of the disadvantages of New York to this cause. It would seem, if all this be true, that competition between the Atlantic ports does something at least to solve the transportation problem, so far as the people of the West are concerned. In his recent speech at Dayton, Ohio, Senator Morton, in speaking of the cheap transportation question, made a statement of considerable importance. He says that he has in his possession a proposal submitted by Dutch capitalists to build a railroad with four tracks from the West to the seaboard, without asking any aid, either State or national. All they ask is a charter. We trust this proposal will not be forgotten when Congress meets, for it will contrast very strangely with certain other propositions which will be submitted to the authorities.

Two years ago Congress created a reform government for the District of Columbia, consisting practically of a Board of Works, at the head of which was nominally the President of the Board and Governor of the District, but really the Vice-President, Mr. A. R. Shepherd. The Board, on assuming control, undertook a comprehensive scheme of public improvement, which resulted in the creation of a debt of some \$17,000,000. This debt made the District bankrupt, and two months since the Board was reduced to paying its employees in small bonds of the denomination of \$50, being unable to find any ready money. There has always been a good deal of doubt as to what had become of this \$17,000,000, and the person chiefly suspected of knowing where it is is Mr. A. R. Shepherd, who is commonly spoken of as "Boss" Shepherd, and who is accused of having made large sums of money by what used to be called in New York, in the time of Tweed, "speculations in real estate." The Governor of the District and President of the Board, Mr. H. D. Cooke, has resigned, on account of the conflicting claims upon his time and attention of his public and private duties, and General Grant, in accepting his resignation, has written him a letter congratulating him on his able and zealous performance of his duties, which has caused the national capital to advance towards what it should be "with a rapidity that astonishes and pleases every one who has been away from it for a few years and returns," and saying that if Governor Cooke's successors give the property-holders of the District the same satisfaction that he has, the people of the whole country "will have reason to congratulate themselves on the new form of government given them." The President has appointed as Governor Cooke's successor Mr. A. R. Shepherd.

The practice of levying assessments for political purposes on the employees of the Post-office has hitherto been generally supposed to be confined to the period just preceding important elections. From this, however, to the practice of creating a party treasury, with a permanent fund, there is but one step, and that step seems to have been taken by Postmaster Filley of St. Louis. Mr. Filley lately sent round among the St. Louis Post-office clerks a circular calling attention to the "necessity which frequently arises for the disbursement of money in securing political ends," and the consequent propriety of contributions from those who hold places of profit dependent upon the supremacy of the party, and respectfully advising the clerk addressed that a donation of so many dollars would be gratefully received, and at the same time handsomely acknowledging the receipt of the money. Persons who have not studied the subject may suppose this to be a violation of the civil-service rules, but it is not; for these donations are voluntary, and the clerks who contributed have since been engaged in signing a blank form, as follows:

"We, the undersigned, clerks in the St. Louis Post-office, signed the assessment of five per cent. of our salaries upon us without fear of discharge or other consequences in case of refusal to do so, and of our own free will; and we commend the Hon. Chauncey L. Filley for the silence he has observed in view of the comments made by newspapers and citizens in regard to such assessment."

General Butler was not nominated for the governorship of Massachusetts at the Worcester Convention, a result which was generally anticipated. The Washburn men proved to be in a majority—a small one, but still a majority—and accordingly, after some preliminary sparring and grimacing, the General withdrew his name, a step which apparently took his followers by surprise, and led them to expect and hope for something in the nature of a compromise. There was hardly a trace of this, however, in the platform, in which Butler's enemies had it all their own way. The resolutions condemned the "salary grab" in the strongest terms; rebuked the interference of Federal office-holders, *as such*, in local politics, and called on the President to dismiss those of them who had been guilty of "working" for Butler; affirmed the right of Congress to regulate railroad traffic, and called for the exercise of it; took credit to the Republican party for all the more important reformatory legislation of the present generation, and protested against "cheating and bullying" at caucuses and conventions; demanded the ten-

hour system for women and minors employed in Massachusetts factories; approved of laws for the suppression of crime, intemperance, and disorder, and declared that "the character and details" of such laws must be fixed by the legislature, and that the laws ought to be obeyed until repealed; and, finally, approved of Governor Washburn.

Butler and his followers declined to bolt, and he took the castigation bestowed on him in the first resolution with his accustomed cheerful impudence. In fact, those who understand his character are of opinion that he extracted a great deal of comfort from the proceedings. He had a large and enthusiastic following among the delegates, to whom the badness of his reputation seemed to afford great delight and amusement, and he was the most conspicuous figure at the Convention by far, and thus had his love of notoriety fed to the full. It must be admitted, too, that on the question of bolting he got the better of his opponents. Mr. Dawes's avowal, previous to the Convention, that even if Butler were nominated he would vote for him, and the shrinking of the anti-Butler men, with the honorable exception of Dr. Freeman Clarke, at the Convention, from the avowal that they would not vote for him under any circumstances, were to him triumphs of considerable value, because the game he is playing in Massachusetts rests wholly on the presumption that whoever can get possession of the Convention can make sure of the obedience of the party. As long as this stands, Butler has only to do his peculiar and hidden work at the caucuses and primary meetings to increase his chances next year. A frank declaration at Worcester that his nomination would not be submitted to would have brought his enterprise to a termination and caused the desertion of a large proportion of his followers. As matters are, he has every inducement to begin over again next year; and this we have little doubt he will do. The Convention produced two speeches of an order rarely heard in such bodies—Mr. Bullock's and Dr. Freeman Clarke's. If they made the impression they ought to have made, Butlerism would rapidly disappear from the State.

The Virginia campaign seems already to be decided in favor of the Conservative candidate for Governor, who stands on a "white man's platform," a state of things to be regretted, but apparently the inevitable result of Federal interference and carpet-bagging. In New York, five State conventions are to be held this fall. The Republicans meet at Utica on the 24th of this month; the Democrats at the same place on the 1st of October; the Liberal Republicans at Elmira one week later; and the regular and irregular Prohibitionists will also hold conventions. There are two Supreme Court, two Superior Court, and two Marine Court judges to be nominated, as well as the usual political vacancies to be filled. Whoever should pretend at this moment that he knew anything about the chances of the next candidates would be guilty of a gross attempt at imposition; but there are one or two considerations that ought not to be overlooked by the managers. The Republicans and Democrats are pretty nearly evenly balanced, if not in actual strength, certainly in voting power; the popular interest in politics is at a low ebb; and the citizens of this city will not turn out in any force unless something turns up of an exceptionally interesting kind. Under these circumstances, the election can either be determined by bargaining or by the character of the nominations, and if one of the two chief parties should take "politics" for their cue and put up a poor ticket, and the other should nominate a strong ticket of unexceptionable names, the latter would stand a very good chance of bringing out a heavy vote, whether they happened to be in the Republican or Democratic fold. In Brooklyn, the chief event of the week has been the arrest of Sprague, City Treasurer, and Rodman's principal, for embezzlement.

Intelligence from the *Tigress* has been received during the week. The search for Buddington and his company had been rewarded by finding their winter camp on the mainland near Littleton's Island, which Captain Tyson is supposed to have mistaken for Northumber-

land Island, thus transferring the scene of the separation some sixty miles to the north. In the camp were six Esquimaux, with whom communication proved difficult, owing to their dialect; but from them and the manuscript journals left behind, it was ascertained that the white men had passed a comfortable winter under shelter, and having constructed two whaleboats from the badly-damaged *Polaris*, embarked in them for the south about the middle of June. A month later, and only three weeks before the arrival of the *Tigress*, the vessel went down. As no trace of human beings was discovered in the voyage to and from Disco, it is inferred that the Boddington party purposely made for the west coast of Baffin's Bay, and are now safe on board some one of the whalers which frequent it. The *Tigress* has crossed over to ascertain if this be the fact. The recovery of the papers of the unfortunate expedition is no inconsiderable result of the *Tigress's* mission.

The Tichborne trial begins to have a very strange look. Dr. Kenealy complains of the non-interference of the Court on an occasion when he says Mr. Hawkins "called him" a liar in "open court." The Court explained this non-interference by hinting that the abuse of Hawkins by Kenealy quite equalled that of Kenealy by Hawkins. There is some hard swearing going on for the defence; but if it were not for the squabbles between the lawyers and the Bench, the trial would begin to grow uninteresting. The conviction of the American bill-forgers, and their sentence to penal servitude for life, has attracted a good deal of attention, one correspondent observing that there is a belief among certain classes in London—the same classes, by the way, who are in the habit of cheering the Claimant whenever he appears in public—that the severity of the sentence comes from the fact that the convicts are Americans, the recent payment of the *Alabama* money having irritated the minds of the British aristocracy. While in Newgate, it is said, the prisoners nearly effected an escape by bribing three of the warders—giving them £100 apiece. There is a story, also, that a plan was concocted for a rescue from the dock while the trial was proceeding. These facts were probably taken into account by the Court in imposing sentence.

The Internationals have held their annual meeting, and it seems from their proceedings that communistic societies, like ordinary individuals, as they grow older become more conservative. The first question which came before the convention was the admission of an Italian delegate, sent by the Spanish Intransigentes. Notwithstanding all that has been said of the sympathy between the Spanish revolutionists and the followers of Karl Marx, the deputy was unanimously refused admission, partly because of his not being in good and regular standing, but partly on account of the bad reputation of his Spanish principals.

The visit of the Comte de Paris to the Comte de Chambord is now generally taken to be an abandonment on his part of all claim to the throne through Louis Philippe, and an acknowledgment of the principle of hereditary monarchy in the person of the latter. This has so far cleared the ground for the Monarchists that they are apparently of opinion that there is now nothing to be done but bring the Comte de Chambord to reason on the subject of the white flag. On this point he has always been obdurate, but he is now said to show some signs of willingness to compromise by confining the display of the flag to his residences as a sort of family ensign, and leaving the tricolor for the army and the nation. Things have gone so far that M. John Lemoinne, who occupies a position in the press somewhat similar to that of the late Prévost-Paradol, and is now acting as the monarchical fugleman, has come out openly for the monarchy in the *Débats*, on the condition, of course, that the Comte de Chambord makes a fair bargain with the nation and gives up divine right. There is little doubt that the majority in the Assembly is all ready for a decisive move in this direction, and only hesitates through doubts about MacMahon. Whether he would allow anything new to be set up is still questioned.

All this is frightening the Italians badly. If there is anything on which Henri V. is obstinate and unrelenting, it is his devotion to the Church, and his more ardent adherents make no secret of his belief that he would think it due to himself and to France, but especially to himself, to set the Pope up again in the enjoyment of his temporal rights; and that an interference in Italy to please the army would be set on foot, in imitation of the interference in Spain undertaken by the Restoration in 1822. There is, so far as known, no class of French politicians, except the despised Reds, who would object to a crusade of this sort. Even the liberal Thiers could hardly oppose it; and to thousands of infidels it would have the sovereign advantage of restoring the self-respect of the army. When one thinks of these things, one likes to look back to Gravelotte and Sedan. The Italians are, however, growing crusty, and may have an opportunity of showing in the controversy what the last ten years have done for them.

In order to get any reliable news from Spain, it is generally necessary to go back about a month and make a comparison of the various contradictory telegrams which have been published. Last month's defeat of the Carlists at Estella turns out to have been instead the capture of the citadel by the Carlists, who took 600 prisoners. A special correspondent of the *Times* confirms this version. Don Carlos gave the garrison their liberty and an escort to Pampeluna. The Carlist officers seem to be mainly occupied in disciplining their raw levies in the North for a descent in force upon Madrid. Castelar, on his election as President of the Cortes, made one of his usual speeches, in which he extolled the ideal, made very disheartening allusions to the actual, and assured his hearers that the only hope for republicanism in Spain was the immediate establishment of a dictatorship.

A correspondent of the *Tribune* has succeeded in getting into Cartagena, and writes a very entertaining description of his adventures. He walked round the walls, "interviewing" the sentries, until he was arrested, and was then taken first before Citizen Gutierrez, the cobbler, President of the Junta, and then before Contreras, who received him in half-naked state, but with great politeness, which the correspondent repaid with interest, assuring the General that though his canton and its institutions were still young, they would no doubt improve with time. Just before the arrival of the correspondent, the *Vittoria* and *Almanza* had been captured by the English and Prussians, and the Spanish Admiral, Lobo, had arrived off Cartagena with three wooden sloops, and demanded the surrender of those iron-clads. It was suggested to him that without extra hands he could not man them—an argument which struck the Admiral so forcibly that he immediately determined to put to sea, giving at the same time official notice that he established the blockade of the harbor from that day. As soon as Lobo had begun to make his preparations for departure, the insurgent vessels, *Mendez Nuñez* and *Numancia*, began to make things ready for a terrific naval fight, and the English Admiral sent word to Lobo that his enemies were getting up steam. Lobo replied, "Then I know my duty, and will do it," and got up steam and went off as fast as possible to Algeciras. He returned no more by daylight, but frequently came in under cover of the night, and sent messages to the English Admiral; but at dawn of day he was off. There are in Cartagena some 1,500 mutinied soldiers and some 4,000 volunteers. The soldiers are unpaid, but provisions are plenty. The besiegers under General Campos are half a mile out of range, but Contreras keeps up a continual cannonade, and the correspondent, illustrating the desperate character of the conflict, mentions the fact that on going outside the walls a day or two before to see what was going on, the Castle of Atalaya opened such a fire upon him that he barely escaped with his life; and he intimates the opinion that unless the war is brought to a speedy termination, there will not be a village left intact in the range of the guns.

THE LOST OPPORTUNITY.

THE Massachusetts Convention last week contained all needful elements for a great and decisive and peculiarly useful victory. The canvass had been prolonged and animated; the enemy had brought up all of his forces, swelled by irregular and illegal artifices, and was believed to be stronger than he could ever be again. Notwithstanding his extraordinary combinations of personal resources with Executive patronage and influence, there was a powerful majority against him, unquestionably representing, both in sentiment and the manner of choosing the delegates, the best part of the Republican party of Massachusetts; and there was a presiding officer whose impartiality and ability could be relied upon, and whose inaugural address had done all that such an address could do to raise the Convention out of the stratum of political intrigue, and bring a really intelligent body of American citizens face to face with the greater dangers and evils of the political hour. The day before the Convention assembled, General Butler was morally defeated, occupying the position of a man who, without mishap, had done his utmost and failed, and was about to receive the decisive blow that would effectually dispose of him. But when the Convention closed its sittings, General Butler was really the only person to be seen—patronizing the resolutions, claiming this, that, and the other as embodying *his* principles, for which *he* had long labored, and, by a clever piece of effrontery, turning the back-pay resolution, which was intended to crush himself, into a shaft against his opponent, and hoping, with illustrative political fidelity, that, if the resolution were adopted, nobody would vote against Governor Washburn because of it. Whatever may be wished, no one can say that an enemy has been very badly routed when he is allowed to retain his position as long as he pleases, and to fire at his ease unanswered the very last guns of the battle.

The issue that has been tried (or attempted to be tried) in Massachusetts during the canvass, is whether our political conventions shall be the expression of the opinions of those citizens who make up a party, or whether they shall continue to be a piece of party machinery, handled by professed politicians and controlled by the interference of the executive officers of the General Government. It is a vital issue, and nowhere could it have been fought out better than in Massachusetts; or rather, on no other battle-ground and at no other time could there have been so little to excuse a retreat. For it is an "off-year" in politics; no other vital question was to be sacrificed for this, or required this to be sacrificed for it. Massachusetts is the strongest Republican State in the Union, with the best-informed population, and with the largest proportion of trained intelligence, and she is one of the few States where the educated and wealthy classes continue to take an active part in political affairs. On what other field could a battle so well have been fought which would teach our political adventurers that the American people are reaching a condition of mind in which they will no longer be trifled with?

"Dividing the party" was apparently the bugbear which frightened the leaders of the Convention into the policy of assuring General Butler a safe and orderly retreat. Dividing the party with a tolerable certainty of dividing its obnoxious elements out of it, is precisely what Massachusetts needs to have done, and what the large and respectable majority of her citizens really desired to do. Dividing the party is precisely what General Butler and politicians of his kind dare not do. Their political trade consists in capturing conventions, and relying upon party obligations to compel men to accept their nominations. Now, it would have been difficult, and perhaps improper, for the leaders at Worcester to have gone directly out of their way to eject from the party General Butler and the Federal office-holders who have been conspiring to use their official positions to thwart the views and wishes of the people of Massachusetts, but General Butler himself brought in and laid before the Convention the golden opportunity. The address of Governor Bullock had for the moment raised the Convention upon

plane where it could do something for the regeneration of American politics. The resolution of Butler was nothing less than a proposition to bring the Convention down to the usual low level of a contest between two office-seekers, with the usual blind fidelity to the nomination, whether it be good or infamous. Considered by the light of its subsequent success, it must be acknowledged that the proposition seems a shrewd forecast, on General Butler's part, of the timidity of the men who were opposing him; estimated by the use to which it might have been put, it seems one of the most patent blunders into which any politician ever fell. It was the very last gage of battle that General Butler would have been willing to throw down, if there had been courage and earnestness enough among his opponents to take it up. He virtually snapped his fingers at the majority, and dared them to drive him out of the party. If they had dared, and struck the blow which he for the moment invited, and boldly said, "Mr. Green was right; we approve of what he said and agree with him in holding you a dishonorable aspirant, who shall never under any pretext receive our support," Butler would have been routed and compelled to leave the Convention, with the responsibility on his own shoulders of dividing the party, and with no excuse for doing so except the party's openly expressed contempt for himself; and it would have been written down on the party record in very plain characters, that neither this year nor next can General Butler be the representative of the Republican citizens of Massachusetts. Instead of trying to smother the resolution in a committee, and timidly meeting it with subterfuges and evasions, Mr. Hoar and his friends should have thanked Butler from their inmost souls for an opportunity which could hardly be hoped for in a lifetime spent in conventions. As it was, they allowed Butler to throw himself into the attitude of a courageous, straightforward, honest man, who alone dared to speak out truthfully against the quibbles and evasions of those who were in an underhand way trying to put him down. Indeed, the majority of the Convention who had come up honestly prepared to do battle for the right, were made to appear like men who, having climbed up into a better position, are then afraid either to go up higher or to come down, but stand meekly on the defensive, dodging as well as they can the missiles which their bolder and more active enemy audaciously chooses to fling at them. It cannot be said that they were defeated, but it must be acknowledged that they declined to fight a decisive battle, and thereby threw away the certainty of winning a great victory. The battle which they condescended to engage in was that of an ordinary contest between two candidates, with nothing of record against the one except his lack of votes, and with the certainty behind it that he will again come up to vex and harass Massachusetts, and renew the struggle to debauch and buy up the requisite number of political committees as unblushingly as before.

The person to whom Massachusetts and General Butler are most indebted for this unexpected turn of affairs is Mr. Dawes. At the beginning of the campaign, Mr. Dawes took care to announce that he would only be a private in this war, which now seems to mean that he would not be responsible for any battles beyond those of words, and that when it came to blows he would put himself as completely as possible out of General Butler's and harm's way. When the contest was growing serious, and delegates were openly avowing their intention to bolt or divide rather than support Gen. Butler, and not one of the leaders had intimated that he would prefer party discipline to the integrity of the party and the welfare of the State, Mr. Dawes, apparently thinking that it was time for him to interfere, stepped out of his retirement in the ranks to make to his constituents the most fatally important speech of the campaign. In this speech, after describing Butler as a man without a merit or a virtue—whose unprincipled conduct is now costing the General Government \$20,000,000 a year in salaries alone, and who is the most dangerous man who could be selected for any responsible office—he suddenly read his own self-condemnation by saying that he would nevertheless support him if he should be successful in the Convention. The speech meant more than it said, for it was an

intimation to the Congressional following in his own district, and in others which were opposing Butler, that they were in no event to proceed to extremities; and it was still more fatal in disclosing to Butler what the policy of the leaders would be—in effect patting him on the back and telling him that he might play as bold a game in the Convention as he pleased.

There are, as we have hitherto had occasion to say in the columns of the *Nation*, two theories of what a political party is: the one holds that it consists simply of a number of citizens who co-operate to accomplish some definite thing which they believe will be for the public good; the other, that a party is a kind of army in which men enlist, and in which they are to be kept marching without question as to where they may be going, though (according to General Butler) with the privilege of deserting and going over to the enemy if they please; and that it is to be managed primarily for its own ends, and to be kept agoing, so long as "the people" can stand it, for the sake of its leaders and its followers and its traditions and the good it has done. It is this latter doctrine which depends upon "discipline" and "fealty," and regards a nomination to a high office as a prize for which two or more men play and one wins, and accounts the loser's "support" as something akin to a gambler's debt of honor. Mr. Dawes came into politics in 1848, and he was elected to Congress as long ago as 1856, and uninterrupted political life has evidently brought him into the strict party school. So far as we can perceive, the recent contest in Massachusetts is now chiefly remarkable for enabling him and General Butler to place themselves side by side on precisely the same platform.

THE CATHOLIC REVIVAL.

THERE have not been within the present century so many signs of activity in the Catholic Church as are to be witnessed this year. A movement having for its object, as our own revivals have, the outward display of intense religious feeling, and embodying itself in ostentatious excursions by large bodies of persons to the shrine of some saint or the scene of some miracle, has begun in France and spread to England, and is beginning to show itself in this country, in which an American "pilgrimage," on a scale and with accompaniments that will throw the European pilgrimages into the shade, is already talked of. The *Catholic Review*, in discussing it, makes suggestions which show indeed that the American Catholics will bring to the work of pilgrimage that practical, labor-saving, and inventive spirit which has already achieved so many wonders in the field of material progress. It points out that the American pilgrim, while promoting his soul's health and fostering in his breast the flame of holy zeal, by visiting spots which church history has made famous, or visible interpositions of the Unseen Power have sanctified, will at the same time, and by the same outlay of money, gratify that longing for European travel by which every right-minded American is more or less possessed. We doubt very much whether any such economy of time and cost has been held out to any of the devout Europeans who are hastening from England and various parts of France to Lourdes and Paray-le-Monial.

But then it must be admitted that the European pilgrim has reasons for seriousness and singleness of purpose which do not press on his American brother. The Catholic revival in France, and in a minor degree in England, is not altogether the result of a quickening of religious zeal simply. One occasionally sees the religious demonstrations in France ascribed to the fanatical promptings of the reactionary majority in the Assembly. That this majority is intensely ecclesiastical in its taste and temper there is no denying, and in fact it takes no pains to disguise it. More striking proofs of its leanings and of its indifference to the traditions of French liberalism it could not have afforded than its passage of a law, before its late adjournment, restoring mortmain for the benefit of the Archbishop of Paris, and of a resolution declaring the construction of a Catholic cathedral on the heights of Montmartre a work of public utility. But then this disposition on the part of the class which makes up the majority of the Assembly was exhibited in the same strength when it was last in power, after the Restoration of 1815. One of the first

things the dukes and marquises and counts have always done when they got a chance, ever since the Revolution, is to try to restore the Catholic Church to its ante-Revolutionary power and splendor, and this not more because it is the true church, through whose gates only people go to heaven, than because it is the only church to which a gentleman can belong, and the only one that gives gentlemen their due. The little corps of "Pontifical Zouaves" who did so much splendid fighting during the Franco-Prussian war, is not by any means composed of pious youths, in the ordinary sense of the word, but of men who felt that in defending the church and its visible head, they were defending their own order, and the ideas which made the order worth belonging to.

But all these phenomena were witnessed in as great perfection between 1815 and 1830 as now. What distinguishes the present revival of ecclesiastical influence in France from that which took place when the reactionary party last had the upper hand, is that it is shared by the *bourgeoisie*, and that the religious sensibilities of a large class, which, after the Restoration, could not be said to have any religious sensibilities at all, are now touched; and the French *épicier*, after fifty years of complacent infidelity, begins to say his prayers, take the communion, and visit distant shrines, and finds himself once more coming into sympathetic relations with the Catholics of other countries. The explanation of this change—and something corresponding to it to be witnessed in other countries—is not so much that defeat and invasion have softened his heart and loosened his hold on the things of this life, as that he feels, as the middle and upper classes throughout Europe, except perhaps in Italy, feel, that the very foundations of society are being shaken by the discontents, aims, and aspirations of the working-classes. These discontents are too fierce and bitter, and too completely separated from the facts of life, to be capable, as far as appears at present, of being allayed by any process of discussion, or any redistribution of political power. The watchword of the Socialistic party on the Continent is everywhere, "Your money or your life," and their accession to power has everywhere thus far been marked by confiscation and slaughter. The result is therefore an unmistakable loss of respect on the part of the middle classes for the machinery of constitutional government, and an unmistakable growth of respect for the soldier and the priest as the two great defenders of the existing social order. The disposition to seek religious consolation in the present crisis is strengthened by the fierce hostility of the Radical party not to the Church only, but to all forms of belief in an unseen world. God is now generally denounced by the Radical leaders as a middle-class fetish, set up partly to feed their own selfishness and partly to keep the poor quiet; and even the most materialistic owners of property are thus driven into refurbishing their early faith and placing their fortunes under the divine care. God, they reason, would hardly be so fiercely assailed by the enemies of order if the worship of men were not closely connected with its maintenance. There is a passage in the recent work of one of the frankest of contemporary Positivists, Mr. John Morley, on Voltaire, which well expresses the feeling which, in a coarser form, fills the breasts of the Irreconcilables of the European continent: that the Christian religion, even in its most theistic form, is essentially the religion of the happy and comfortable, that only those with whom, on the whole, the world goes well can feel that trust in the rightfulness of the decrees of Providence, that confidence that even adversity is parental chastisement and that come what will all things are ordered for the best, which lie at the basis of all real piety.

The attacks which are occasionally made on the pilgrims in the French towns, and the hissing and singing of the *Marseillaise* with which the hymns are greeted by the bystanders, are so many illustrations of the depth of the gulf which now separates the church and the world in many parts of Christendom. It is not a gulf of opinion about doctrines, but a gulf of feeling on the whole cluster of rights and duties of which social life is made up. The German barbarian who watched a Christian procession in a Gaulish city in the third or fourth century was not a sympathetic spectator, and may

have been a hostile one, but there was a good deal of awe and curiosity in his hostility at worst, and he was by no means inaccessible to sacerdotal persuasion. The modern barbarian feels neither awe nor curiosity, and is apparently past conversion. To him the clergy and faithful are a band of impostors, whose goods he would like to spoil, and whose throats he would not mind cutting. When we consider these things, we understand the comfort which, according to all the best accounts, was diffused through property-holding France when the news came that the Conservatives had thrown the "Parliamentarians overboard, and put the reins of authority in the hands of a soldier. The game of debate, said the shopkeeper to himself, is pretty, and government carried on in that way may be a pleasing sight for doctrinaires and Englishmen and Americans, but I am more anxious to live and enjoy my gains, and leave them to my children, than to afford those gentlemen the spectacle of the successful working of constitutional government. It might turn out all well if I kept on marching in that direction, but when the Radicals tell me, as one of them did during the Commune, that the proper thing to do with me, and the like of me, was to take us out on a fine May day, when the air was clear, and the sun shone bright, and life seemed sweet, to the nearest square, "and plant twelve rifle-balls apiece in our bellies," I prefer to stay as I am. The Radicals and I cannot work together in comfort on this globe. I may have to kill them in order to prevent them from killing me, and I therefore wish to keep the means of doing it in my hands.

It must be added, too, that the ferocity of the Conservatives is by no means defensive simply. They hate the Radicals as the Radicals hate them, are not sorry to get a chance of killing them, and, when there is no other way of demonstrating against them, enjoy building churches and making pilgrimages under their noses, and doing everything else which liberal France is known to despise or to abhor. The situation is not one which either the religious man or the politician can contemplate with much pleasure, but it would be a mistake to suppose that an increase of faith in the Catholic Church on purely religious grounds forms an important feature in it; on the contrary, it is three-fourths political.

THE WORCESTER CONVENTION.

BOSTON, September 13, 1873.

IN spite of the enormous uproar made by the Butler men, and in spite of the aggrandizing of General Butler's chances of success done by persons outside of Massachusetts, it appears to be true that Governor Washburn's friends were right enough in their original estimate of the number of delegates that Butler would be able to secure. From the beginning they conceded to him about four hundred out of the eleven hundred members who were to make up the Convention; and, although the Convention adjourned without having by a definite vote determined exactly how many delegates were for Washburn and how many for his opponent, and although such votes as were taken were vitiated by cheating, and were at the best ill counted, it is reasonably clear that not very far from four hundred is the mark at which to set the fulness of the Butler strength. How they secured so much strength as that it would be an old story to tell you. Such persons as can get any comfort from it may have the assurance of the best-informed political observers on the Washburn side, that what success the Butler men obtained they obtained at the cost of a small fortune expended by their leader. For example, a thousand dollars is put down as the amount that went into the little town of Greenfield, Governor Washburn's home, for the purpose of showing the State at large how unpopular the Governor was among his neighbors. I may add that, in this instance, it was money lost. In another town, an Irish Democrat turns over to the Washburn managers a five-dollar bill, sent to him enclosed in a package of Butler ballots, which he was to use in the impending caucus. Dozens of similar stories—scores of them, rather—are everywhere to be heard. Indeed, the facts are so well known that only a bill of items, giving a list of the towns in which caucuses were bought, and the names of the men employed as disbursing agents, could command any interest in this community. It is no more news here than the shining of the sun that Butler's canvass has been marked by the purchase of some caucuses, the packing of others with Democratic voters, and the active management of others by the Federal officials of the eastern end of the State. To-day one would hear of Supervisor Simmons—a young man of the Davenport order, to judge him by his looks and his reputation—as being busy at Taunton say

"fixing things"; to-morrow he might be heard of in Worcester County; next week he might, as committeeman, be calling ward caucuses in Boston at a moment's notice, so that not even special trains could bring up Washburn men from the seaside, or down from the mountains. Collector Russell, too, was another of whom one was always hearing; now, as advising with the Eighth Ward negroes in the interest of General Butler—whom, by the way, this class of voters almost to a man ignorantly worship, as the Scripture says—and again, when General Butler's defeat had become a thing certain, one heard of the Collector as treating the Washburn managers in his ward with the greatest courtesy, conceding everything, agreeing that So-and-so, their nominee, would be a fit person for chairman of the caucus, and consenting even to "the use of the check-list."

The check-list, by the way, has been the subject of much bitter dispute in all this struggle. The demand of the Butler men has everywhere been that it should be discarded, and this demand, said their opponents, was on its face proof positive of a deliberate intention to commit fraud. Why, they asked, object to the use of a document which was no more than an authentic register of those citizens who at the last election were legal voters in the ward where the caucus was now to be held? To this question the reply of the others was that, although the rich seldom change their places of residence from ward to ward, the poor are compelled to do so often, and that to insist on a man's name being on the check-list before letting him vote in caucus was in many cases to disfranchise him for poverty. To this the rejoinder was, that more likely it was to withhold from a Charlestown Navy Yard hand the right to come over, at the order of his boss, and vote in a Boston Republican ward meeting; or it was to deprive Democrats of the right to come in and elect delegates to a Republican convention. Whatever the arguments were, in most places where the Butler men had their way the check-lists were, as a matter of fact, dispensed with. But the Convention, I observe, directed on Wednesday that hereafter they should be used, and stated that, if they were not, all delegates elected at primary meetings which should disregard the order would be refused admission to the nominating convention. No doubt this is fair, and inflicts no hardship on anybody. Lazarus no more than Dives need find difficulty in going to the ward-room of the ward into which he has just moved and having himself registered. In fact, the outcry on this subject was but one illustration of the rascality and the astonishing, patent, undisguised impudence of Butler and the Butler men. I know of no way of describing it. Perhaps as good a measure of this impudence as any is the utter hatred of Butler with which it inspires spectators. I myself believe that it would be not an easy task to apportion with precision the amount of General Butler's ill-luck in Massachusetts which is due to the disgust and contempt which his pachydermatous cynical impudence creates, and the amount which is due to the reasonable disapproval of his works and ways. To a dim perception of this cause of his failure he owes, I imagine, the sympathy given him by many well-meaning, if not very wise, men of whom, now that his character is well known, better things might be expected.

On the morning of the 10th, when the Convention was to meet, it was perfectly well known to both sides that Butler was beaten, and that no effort of his could prevent the nomination of Washburn. Beyond that fixed fact, there was room for conjecture, and the guesses were as to whether Butler would find or make a pretext for bolting; whether the Washburn men would dare to put into the platform a resolution condemning the "back-pay grab"; whether they would dare to leave that measure unmentioned; whether if they denounced that, and then permitted interference of Federal officials in local politics, Butler would make a long fight and a fight with a successful result—for who could tell how many Washburn men there might be who would feel hesitancy in making an attack on the Administration? Six or seven hours decided that what was to happen was an exhibition of himself by General Butler; an acknowledgment at the end of it that he had known from the beginning that he was beaten; and, finally, on the part of the Washburn leaders, although they very handsomely thrashed him before the people, and took very good care of him in the Convention itself, a failure to read their enemy out of the party. This many hoped for, but perhaps unreasonably.

From the opening of the Convention—indeed, from the opening of the doors of the hall—General Butler made it evident that he had determined to be the chief performer of the day. Dressed in a suit of black, and holding in his hand a portentous felt hat, he rolled his bulk about for a few minutes at the right hand of the Chairman's platform, speaking to but few persons, for he was on the Washburn side of the house, and not much noticed by anybody. By-and-by, however, he stepped forward a yard or two, and became visible to a friend of his, a Mr. Meehan of Boston, who, although a Democrat, I believe, roared out from his seat in the galleries as soon as he caught sight of the General, "Three cheers for

old Ben Butler." They were given with a will, the galleries being evidently for Butler on the whole, and were listened to by the Washburn captains with a sort of smile, which they interchanged, and which smile might be interpreted as saying, "If that does you any good, you are entirely welcome to it." General Butler was not at all bashful or coy, but at once mounted the platform amid a renewal of the stamping and cheering, and made his bow to the audience upstairs and to the Butler delegates seated on the left hand of the platform, who joined in the applause. From that time on he was constantly conspicuous. He must have been on his feet and talking rather more than half of the whole time during which the Convention was in session, and talked at least six times as much as any other man in it. Apparently, his object was to impress his followers with a sense of his abilities as a tactician, and of his general importance; and this he must, I should think, have succeeded in doing.

For what other reason he made his first motion, which he made while the Convention was as yet only temporarily organized and was doing the regular routine business incident to that stage of its existence, no one seemed then at least to know, though afterwards a possible reason appeared. Mr. W. W. Rice, of Worcester, who, with Mr. G. F. Hoar, was the anti-Butler manager on the floor, moved that all resolutions offered in the Convention should be referred, without debate, to the committee on resolutions. At once the raucous voice of the gentleman from Gloucester, thickened and muffled, as it were, by the flesh of his cheeks, was heard moving an amendment. All resolutions, he suggested, should be referred without debate, except resolutions "concerning the ordinary organization and business of the Convention." Mr. Rice thought he had offered the usual resolution: the Convention organized itself by votes, not by resolutions; of course he did not intend that it should be organized by the committee on resolutions. After some more words from Mr. Butler, and some more again by Mr. Rice, who from time to time gave ear to a hint from Mr. W. S. Robinson, or some other parliamentarian, Mr. Rice accepted the amendment of the gentleman from Gloucester. Just at this moment, however, the gentleman from Gloucester had a paper passed to him from some gentleman behind him, who had taken the pains to write down what in his view should be the exact words of the amendment proposed, and this document Mr. Butler sent up to the chair, with the remark that it had been handed to him by a friend. The seemingly casual character of this transaction had an effect the reverse of soporific on the Washburn men near where I was sitting, and when the amendment was read by the chair, a word or two passed between the leaders of the right side of the house, and Mr. Rice promptly said that the amendment as read he did not accept. At last the matter was arranged, and everybody wondered why so many words had been spent on so small a matter, and why there was need of reducing to writing a resolution which was so much a resolution of course. In the afternoon, the reason of the solicitude seemed to appear; for when the Convention assembled after dinner Butler was on his feet—he was the last man up before dinner, too, moving a recess—reading the resolution, which, from that time out, occupied the time of the Convention, on which the whole battle was fought, and which Butler described as a resolution "concerning the ordinary organization and business of the Convention." It was, in brief, a resolution declaring that whereas a Mr. Green of Franklin, a delegate, had been heard to say that, whatever the Convention might do, he himself would in no case vote for General Butler, it was therefore resolved that the said Mr. Green be debarred from acting as a delegate in that Convention. This resolution General Butler buttressed by an affidavit, and word went round among the dismayed members that his private secretary had some forty or fifty, more or less, similar affidavits, and that each was to be brought up singly and supported by a speech until such time as numerous Washburn delegates had gone home tired, and then Butler was to be nominated.

I may say here that, unless I am misinformed, the truth of the matter, as regards Mr. Green, is that when his fellow-citizens, assembled in caucus, wished to send him to Worcester, he informed them that if they sent him they must do so with the full knowledge that he would in no case vote for Butler, whether the Convention nominated him or not. You may judge from this that had Butler succeeded in getting the nomination, the "bolt" from him would not have been composed of delegates merely. In some instances, at least, it would have been composed of the large majority of the rank and file. And so Mr. James Freeman Clarke indicated when it came his turn to speak on Mr. Green's case. Mr. Clarke's story of the gentleman who did not believe Gen. Butler to be an "honest man" made a decided sensation in the Convention, and the face of the gentleman from Gloucester himself was not proof against this sort of comment, but changed visibly; and a few minutes afterwards, in his reply to his antagonist, Mr. Clarke figured equally with Mr. George Hoar in the witticisms and sarcasms lavished on Mr. Green's friends. While speaking on this subject of the

inveteracy of the opposition to Butler, I may say that when General Butler's speech-makers were insisting on the cowardice of men like Mr. Green, in not openly avowing to the Convention their determination to bolt should General Butler be nominated, one of the anti-Butler leaders, and perhaps the most prominent and influential of them all, said in my hearing, "I wish he had asked me when I was up if I intended to bolt." His tone left no doubt of what would have been his answer; and it is my opinion that the bolt, had one been necessary, would have been a bolt indeed. Many Republicans, while asserting their ability "to take care of Butler every time," more than half wish that there had been a bolt, even if made by their own friends; and as for a bolt by Butler, they were fervently praying for it "so as to finish him once for all." But the prudent man foreseeth evil and hideth himself, and General Butler, although, as Mr. Wendell Phillips says, he is the iron man of New Orleans, had no notion of going of his own accord out of the party. On the contrary, with characteristic adroitness and with characteristic profligacy and indecency—a spectacle to gods and men—he no sooner saw that he was to be beaten in the Convention, and rebuked and abused in the resolutions, than he was ready for prompt submission.

A recess for tea followed the final vote (526 to 403) referring the resolution concerning Mr. Green to the committee. On the reassembling of the delegates, General Butler made his last speech but one, announcing that he was no longer a candidate. Whispers now went round that, in payment for this surrender, there was to be a compromise in regard to the resolutions, and prominent Butler men asseverated this, even with oaths, with the effect of frightening a good many Washburn men, who turned anxious eyes on the door of the ante-room where the committee on resolutions was in session, and into which, every now and then, some absent member would be sent by the chairman of the Convention. There is no doubt that a large majority of Governor Washburn's supporters were disposed to sanction extreme measures against his adversary, and the tidings, circulated the night before, that the platform, as then agreed upon, would censure specifically the Massachusetts representatives who voted for the salary swindle, and generally be "up to the *Advertiser* mark," had been received with universal satisfaction. It did not seem to occur, however, even to those who most bitterly deprecated a compromise, that any appeal from the committee would be possible, however inadequate an expression their report might prove of the true feeling of the Convention. In the scene which followed the committee's appearance upon the platform, the dramatic interest of the occasion reached its culmination. As the voice of the reader, incisive and emphatic in the profound silence that prevailed, pronounced the verdict of the party upon the measure in defence of which all Butler's sophistry had for weeks been expended, all eyes were fixed upon the defeated candidate, who still occupied his elevated position on the platform; and, from the signs of agitation which he could not wholly suppress, it was plain to see that the shafts directed against him had taken effect. And certainly, whoever else may find the resolutions too mild or too platitude, General Butler will not. Clearly, Massachusetts is not ready for him yet. Next year, perhaps, she may be; but I imagine if she gets him it will not be at the hands of the Republican party, but, if at all, at the hands of the "independent organization" with which he had the grace to threaten the Convention, and which the Convention, in its satisfaction at having baffled him, was vouchsafed the grace to receive without resentment.

THE CATHOLIC DISSENSIONS IN SWITZERLAND.

LUCERNE, August 22, 1873.

GENEVA has always been one of the great religious centres of Europe. It has in this respect become lately very prominent since Father Hyacinthe established himself in it as an apostle of the so-called Old Catholics, and since the Government of Geneva began war against Monsignor Mermilliod, a native of the Canton of Vaud, whom the Papal Government suddenly proclaimed Bishop of Geneva. I have been collecting information on the spot concerning these various movements, and the position of the Old Catholics and of the Roman Catholics. The question increases in magnitude, if you reflect that all sorts of hidden forces are working round it and under it—the rival influences of France, of Germany, and of Italy, since Switzerland lies as it were like a knot between three nationalities.

The relations of the Church of Rome and of the Government of Geneva were officially settled by the treaties of Vienna made after the downfall of the first Bonaparte. The *République helvétique* had been cut up into departments by the great conqueror, and proud Geneva had merely become the capital of the Department of the Leman. When the Empire fell, Geneva recovered her independence, and Savoy was given back to the King of Piedmont; but it was agreed that twenty-two townships of Savoy, form-

in a circle round Geneva, should belong to her territory. As these communes were Catholic, the treaty specified that the Catholics should enjoy in them for ever the same privileges which then belonged to their brethren in Savoy. The last protocol was only signed in 1819, and, curiously enough, there was no liberty of conscience in Savoy for Protestants at that time. Piedmont, in fact, was then a very reactionary government, and freedom of worship for Protestants was only established in the kingdom of Piedmont by the *Statuto* of Charles Albert. Before that time, it was impossible to build a Protestant chapel in the territory of Geneva, outside of the town, in places which Rousseau and probably Calvin had often visited.

We come now to the question of the government of the church. This government was determined by a treaty of the confederacy with Rome, by a concordat under which the Pope had the right to name a bishop for Lausanne, who served at the same time as the spiritual guide for the Catholics of the Canton of Geneva. There was also a bishop in Soleure, in Coire, etc. The relations of the bishops with their own clergy followed the old customs: some curés were elected by the communes directly; some others by chapters; some by individuals, heirs of a founder; many by the bishops; but there was no absolute rule giving the government of the church completely over to the episcopacy. Some years ago, Monsignor Mermillod became very influential in Geneva. A very active man, he made himself the ally of the Radicals, gave the Catholic vote to the enemies of the old Conservative party, built chapels, and succeeded in procuring for his flock all the advantages of many rich foundations, originally founded for the exclusive use of the Protestants. But this was not enough; the Court of Rome thought that the time had come to strike a blow at Geneva, and saw a fit instrument in Mermillod. Had Rome opened negotiations with Geneva, my friends assure me that courteous approaches would have been met in a courteous spirit, and that even the objection to the establishment of a Catholic bishopric in Geneva might have been waived. But the Government of Geneva was never consulted; Mermillod was first named apostolic vicar of the Bishop of Lausanne in Geneva, and afterwards raised to the dignity of bishop, and the see of Geneva was created without any negotiation, as if the see of Rome simply exercised an uncontested right.

You may well imagine what agitation these proceedings produced. The Catholics themselves divided. There is in Geneva a large colony of Catholic foreigners, attracted by the beauty of the scenery, by the neutrality of Switzerland. This party is very ultramontane—some of its chiefs belong to exiled princely families; but the Swiss Catholics, who, however religious they may be, are very patriotic, did not eagerly take up the cause of Rome against their own country. Some curés fought on one side, some on the other; and Father Hyacinthe understood at once that here was a favorable field for his own views. His great eloquence attracted large crowds, already prepared for a schism, and there is now in Geneva a congregation of about two thousand Catholics who have adopted the doctrines of Father Hyacinthe. You probably know what these doctrines are. Father Hyacinthe protests that he is not a Protestant; he will, till he dies, as he says, belong to the Catholic Church, but to the church such as it was established and understood by the great fathers of old, and by the first Councils. He allows the marriage of priests; he does not consider auricular confession a necessity, though he recommends it; he rejects wholly the dogmas of the Immaculate Conception and of the personal infallibility of the Pope.

The war became so intense between Mermillod and the Council of Geneva that finally Mermillod was exiled from the Canton. His friends made an appeal to the Federal Council, the discussion before which was very interesting, and quite worthy of a great parliament. M. Segesser, the mouthpiece of the Catholics, strongly protested against any foreign intervention in this question; it was for the Swiss themselves to decide it. He should no more go for help to France than the Protestants of Switzerland should go to Bismarck. Putting then aside these foreign considerations, the deputies must ask themselves if the Council of Geneva had any right to exile a Genevan citizen for an act which fell under no law, which was not even foreseen by the law, which could not be called a crime, a felony, or a misdemeanor. The Genevese councillors were guilty of persecution, and were sowing the seed of future discords. The President of the Republic, Cérésole, answered M. Segesser in the Upper House. "He is a man of forty, of great intelligence. He protested in very strong terms against the accusation of being the tool of Germany and of Bismarck, and offered to lay his whole diplomatic correspondence before the Chamber. Some gentlemen, to be sure, had gone to the French Government and maintained that France, as representing in Savoy the old rights of Piedmont, since the war in Italy, had a right to remonstrate against the conduct of the Government of Geneva. But neither M. Thiers nor the Duc de Broglie had been willing to lend an ear to these advisers. As for Prince Bismarck, he had always maintained the most reserved attitude in the whole matter. The President said little more, and did not attempt to

defend in itself the expulsion of Bishop Mermillod. The vote was taken after an animated discussion, and 26 votes against 13 rejected the appeal in the Council of the States. For the present, the question is settled, but the Mermillod affair is only an incident. The relations of the curés with the bishop have been completely altered. As the Genevese will not give to Mermillod the right to appoint curés, they have voted a law which gives the choice of the curés to the members of the congregation. The parishioners in some towns of the Canton of Soleure are claiming the same right; and there is, at the present moment, complete anarchy in the Catholic Church of Switzerland.

M. Cérésole may technically be right in saying that Germany and Bismarck have nothing to do with this result. M. Segesser said with truth: "I think that nobody has a right to speak of Prince Bismarck's diplomatic interference in this affair. I believe that he has laughed at it. But if in a great country a certain political tendency becomes predominant, when this tendency is personified in an eminent representative of the state, call him prince or call him emperor, this intellectual current will be felt in other countries. You cannot stop at the political frontier of a country a storm which comes from the east or from the west, and it would be folly to maintain that we do not feel this storm because it arose outside of our country." These remarks are very profound. Many people have wondered how Prince Bismarck has been bold enough to raise, without any apparent necessity, the storm against Rome; but he is probably convinced of the necessity of giving a constant nourishment to the combativeness of the German mind, of hindering it from feeding upon itself. The invisible power of Rome can only be met with invisible arms; and thus it is that Father Hyacinthe is an unconscious ally of Germany, in the same manner that Italy is an ally of Germany, though there is probably no offensive or defensive treaty actually signed between them.

The Catholic forces of Europe are now perforce drawing round France, and France is again becoming the eldest daughter of the church. If the most advanced Republicans were in power to-morrow, they probably could not stop this natural attraction and aggregation of forces. A painful and sad necessity must for a long time sunder the intellects of modern Europe; Renan and Strauss can no longer be friends. The difficult problem of the relations of the church and the state is rendered even more complex by the introduction of the political and national elements. Even in this happy Switzerland, protected by neutrality, passions run so high that Geneva has found no better method than the brutal method of exile. Mermillod is now a martyr, and as such he is praised and extolled throughout the whole world. What is there in the air of the Leman that is an incentive to intolerance? Switzerland is always lying like a golden fruit between France, Germany, and Italy. It is perhaps the sentiment of a perpetual danger on the side of France which has always made Geneva so jealous of her rights; but France has at present no desire for annexation; she knows now what annexation means, and how many sufferings are concealed under this Napoleonic word. It would be well for Switzerland if she forgot, or at least if her statesmen forgot for a while, both France and Germany, and settled the relations of church and state in a generous and liberal spirit.

Correspondence.

THE STUDY OF ROMAN LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on the "Study of Roman Law" in the *Nation* of September 11, you are in error in stating that at none of the law Schools in the United States "is the Roman law taught as a part of the regular and required course." It has been taught as such at the Law School of Yale College since the reorganization of the department in 1870, and questions upon it form part of the annual examination papers for the Senior class.

It was also a subject of instruction at the academical department at Yale thirty years ago, under the late Joseph G. E. Larved, Esq., and at the Law School of Harvard University, a few years later, under the late Luther S. Cushing, Esq., well known as the author of a manual, and also of a larger treatise, on Parliamentary Law. The lectures delivered by Mr. Cushing were published by him in 1854 in a volume of about 250 pages, under the title of an 'Introduction to the Study of Roman Law,' so that to Mr. Cushing, rather than to Professor Hadley, belongs the credit of first introducing this subject to the attention of American law-students.

Notes.

IN Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for July 29 will be found a learned summary of the results of the *Polaris* expedition, accompanied by a map showing the routes of this and of former American expeditions by the way of Smith Sound, north of 76°. It comes in good time, just as we hear from the *Tigress* of the discovery of Buddington's winter camp near Littleton's Island (in the vicinity of Cape Olsen, Prudhoe Land), and of the total loss of the *Polaris*.—The historical review of the progress of African discovery, furnished by H. Kiepert in the last number of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, has been printed separately, together with the valuable maps which accompanied the article, already described in the *Nation*. We learn from the preface that this is but the first of a series by the same competent writer, and that the second number will consider the part which the several nations have taken in the exploration of Africa during the past hundred years.

—The fall list of J. R. Osgood & Co. points to the improvement in the book trade this season of which other signs are not wanting. We cannot undertake to give it in full. Among native productions, Mr. Longfellow's 'Aftermath' takes the lead, finding companions in W. D. Howells's and E. C. Stedman's collected poems, Chas. Warren Stoddard's 'South Sea Idyls,' and, we suppose, 'Sounds from Secret Chambers,' by Laura C. Redden ("Howard Glyndon"). Col. Higginson's 'Oldport Days,' and S. A. Drake's 'Historical Fields and Mansions of Middlesex' (illustrated with heliotypes and woodcuts), may be classed together in the category of history, but are otherwise different enough. Dr. James Freeman Clarke's 'Common-Sense in Religion' stands well recommended by the common-sense in politics which he was not afraid to manifest at Worcester. 'The Voice, and How to Use It,' by an anonymous author; 'Marjorie Daw, and Other People,' by T. B. Aldrich; 'Child-Life in Prose,' by John G. Whittier; 'Trotty's Wedding-Tour and Story-Book,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; and 'Doing His Best,' by J. T. Trowbridge, complete our enumeration of American works to be issued by this house. Foreign authors laid under contribution by them are Geo. Henry Lewes ('The Story of Goethe's Life' and 'Problems of Life and Character'); W. R. Greg ('Literary and Social Judgments'); Henry Blackburn ('Picturesque Normandy' and 'Artists and Arabs,' both illustrated); and Walter Savage Landor ('Cameos'—selections from his poetical works by T. B. Aldrich and E. C. Stedman).—G. P. Putnam's Sons, among other announcements, make the following: 'The Homes of Ober-Ammergau,' by Mrs. Eliza Greatorex; 'The Girlhood of Shakespeare's Heroines,' by Mary Cowden Clarke; and Bastiat's 'Essays on Political Economy.'—John Wiley & Son, continuing their uniform edition of Ruskin's works, will publish his 'Lectures on the Greek and English Birds,' in the first of which the robin and the swallow respectively receive attention.—Mrs. Lydia Maria Child's 'Progress of Religious Ideas,' after having become extremely scarce, is to reappear with the imprint of De Witt C. Lent & Co.—A new edition of 'Peter Schlemihl,' Bowring's translation and Cruikshank's illustrations, will be issued by A. Denham & Co.—A book which is likely to commend itself to many mothers besides those who are accustomed to read the *Christian Union*, is 'Bee's Bed-Time, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. S. C. Hallowell, announced by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. Something, too, might be expected for the nursery from 'New Songs for Little People,' by Mrs. Mary C. Anderson, illustrated by Miss L. B. Humphrey (Lee & Shepard).—Hurd & Houghton have in press 'Bianca Cappello,' a five-act tragedy in verse, by Mrs. Elizabeth C. Kinney; and 'The Egyptian Sketch-Book,' by Charles G. Leland.—Scribner, Armstrong & Co. announce 'An Outline Study of Man,' by Dr. Mark Hopkins; the second volume of Ueberweg's 'History of Philosophy'; the fourth volume, comprising Books VI. and VII., of Curtius's 'History of Greece'; 'The Preternatural Origin of the Bible Argued from its Own Characteristics,' by Henry Rogers, author of 'The Eclipse of Faith'; Saxe Holm's 'Stories'; and Jules Verne's 'Journey to the Centre of the Earth.'

—The *Athenaeum* having said, apropos of Joaquin Miller's last volume, that "his old gifts, though still remarkable, have rather run to seed, while his faults of imitation and incompleteness have been confirmed," has received from the irate poet of the Sierras a remarkable note, which it has the cruelty to print. Or rather, it gives an extract, in which the editor is desired to tell the reviewer "to his teeth that he is a liar, a *coward*, and a *cur*." Mr. Miller informs the *Athenaeum* that he wrote without consultation with his publisher. Neither, it is clear, did he consult the dictionary, nor any work on good manners. It should be said for him, however, that his view of the critic's nature and office is not by any means peculiar to himself.

—A correspondent in Baltimore writes us as follows: "The efforts that

are now made in our large cities to give the children of the poor the benefit of excursions to the country and to the seaside, suggest the thought whether the money might not be laid out in a way to produce much more permanent advantages. Dr. Toner's plan (lately described in the *Nation*) for the establishment of "free sanitaria" throughout the country, is objected to on the ground of the enormous expense that it involves, but may we not have Maritime Hospitals, such as are common in Italy? These buildings are erected at convenient places on the sea-shore, and during the hot months are filled with the weak and sickly children from the large towns. The little ones are kept for a week or two, fed on wholesome food, made to bathe regularly and to romp and play on the beach, and are then sent home to make room for another detachment. I watched the working of one of these institutions in the summer of 1871, and it was most interesting to see the groups of children arrive from the cities, pale and languid, to return again a few days later ruddy, bright, and vigorous. These buildings are more properly temporary asylums than hospitals, for they are not intended for the bedridden or for those afflicted with any infectious disease. Designed only for summer use, they may be light, inexpensive frame buildings; and most of our large cities are so near the coast that suitable sites can be found within easy reach. Where these institutions have been tried, they are found to work admirably, and were a few of them scattered along our Atlantic coast, thousands of young lives would be annually saved to the country. It is a subject well worth the attention of the philanthropist." Our correspondent sends also an extract from the *Journal de Genève*, giving the statistics of these beneficent establishments, from which it appears that the first one was founded as long ago as 1856. They now number fifteen in all, and during the three months of bathing entertain from 2,500 to 3,000 children. The railroads charge less than half rates for this class of travellers, and from thirty to fifty cents per day is found to be the cost of the charity for each child.

—A modern pilgrimage at low rates by special train has in it something irresistibly grotesque, and furnishes scoffers with grounds for doubting whether piety or the pleasure of an excursion is the prime motive with the majority of those who engage in it. Father Hennepin embraced the mission to the Iroquois, as he himself tells us, on account of "a passion for travel and a burning desire to visit strange lands"; and even John Woolman's spiritual yearning towards the West Indies coincided with a bodily condition in which balmy gales and tepid waters must have been extremely pleasant to contemplate. With the pilgrims of the present hour in France we cannot conceive it to be wholly otherwise. An act of faith must be doubly sweet when it involves a change of air and of scene, and a return ticket at half-price. Of one of these pilgrimages to La Salette we read that, when it arrived at Melun,

"The Director of the Pilgrimage there appeared at the carriage door, and handed to each of us a small printed paper, containing the regulations for the five days over which the Pilgrimage extends. These regulations set forth the times of departure and arrival, the places where we were to obtain refreshments, the times, and the prices. In addition, the paper set forth the various hymns which were to be chanted each hour, and also some further practical information connected with the journey. It requested us to give our names at Montereau, to dine at Tonnerre, and it concluded with this order, 'Silence during the night.'"

At the Dijon station there was a delay of an hour and a quarter:

"We had been sent out through a door, in passing through which we were counted like so many sheep, and we were let in through another door, where the counting process was repeated. The official who performed this last task was in despair. He could not make the numbers tally, and he called out, 'I want nine more.' I remarked to him that the officials had omitted to label us. He looked at me askance, and went on with his counting. At last he found the lost sheep, and his mind was at rest."

Previously, at Joigny, when the train had stopped,

"Religious songs were to be heard from many carriages, and the refrain of the Sacred Heart, 'Dieu et Clémence, Dieu Protecteur, sauve Rome et la France, au nom du Sacré Cœur.' All at once loud hisses burst forth, and cries of 'La Marseillaise!' 'A Paray!' As the Pilgrims had been forbidden to sing while at the railway station, they immediately became silent, the hisses also ceased, and the train again started."

—The suggestion that the explanation of these queer proceedings is that there is no way of testifying one's faith so sure as making one's self ridiculous, appears, after all, to be more ingenious than sound. A recent proposal of the *Catholic Review*, at least, on the subject of an American pilgrimage, seems to be too shrewd to admit of such an explanation. The *Review* says that as soon as the popular interest in the subject has reached a proper pitch, it will be found that the greater difficulties in the way have been removed, and that an American pilgrimage is not only practicable, but will also prove "the means of uniting a highly spiritual work with the ordinary relaxation which our people claim during their vacations." It is clear that any suggestions as to unboiled peas would

be thrown away on such pilgrims as these. There is a story, which we believe has never got into print, of an American gentleman being hospitably entertained in mediæval fashion in a retired cave in Switzerland, by a hermit. In the course of conversation, the host showed much interest in the guest's country, and, towards the end of the evening, enquired if the latter would recommend him to emigrate to the United States. The American, somewhat embarrassed, enquired in what capacity, and the holy man gave him to understand that he wished to know what sort of an opening America afforded for hermits. The story was originally told as a joke, but the time seems to be coming, or even now at hand, when all humor of this kind will have to be revised. There are probably in the United States a great many hundreds of thousands of persons of both sexes who would find nothing more funny in the notion of an American hermit than in that of an American pilgrim.

—Few people probably know much about the history of the kingdom of Araucania; a smaller number still anything of the founder, King Aurelius Antonius I. There is indeed a certain French barrister named Aurèle Antoine de Tonneus (or Tounens) who knows all there is to know on the subject, but it is only very lately that he has seen fit to make any of his knowledge public. There are some few facts with regard to him, however, which seem to be well established. That some fifteen years since he made a visit to Araucania; that there he acquired great influence with the natives, and was made by them king of the country under the title above given; that his assumption of royal dignity furnished at first a great deal of food for amusement among the neighboring Chilians, and afterwards food for reflection; that the result of this reflection was the sending some police into Araucania early in 1862, with orders to kidnap the king; that the king was carried off and imprisoned in Chili—all this appears to be established. The subsequent history of M. de Tonnens is said to be this: After being held as a prisoner some time, he was tried as a usurper and sentenced to death. The Araucanians appealed to the French consul, who immediately demanded the release of the king on the ground that he was a French subject; and to this demand the Chilian Government acceded, on condition that he should be taken back to France and never allowed to return to his kingdom. Nevertheless, M. de Tonnens contrived to find means of getting away, and, on his return to his Araucanian subjects, found that they were relapsing into the barbarism out of which, during his short reign, he had done his best to lift them. He determined to go back to Europe, get his position recognized, and obtain what assistance he could in his project of establishing an enlightened government in Araucania. He hoped for assistance from Napoleon, but almost at the time of his arrival the battle of Sedan took place, and the Emperor was driven from power; the succeeding governments have been too much occupied with domestic affairs to give much attention to colonization; but Aurelius Antonius has not been idle, and is trying to interest European capitalists in the development of the country. He wishes to promote emigration, and is willing to make land and mining grants, and to build up a trade in copper, silver, wheat, and hides, wool and hemp, in exchange for English manufactured goods. He is said to be simple in his habits, has a great objection to display, is a very early riser, never makes use of a carriage if he can accomplish a journey by walking, is amiable and brave. This experiment is more interesting than that of Dr. Francia in Paraguay. The Paraguayans, with all their bravery, are very low in the scale of humanity, while the Araucanians are, for Indians, very high. For three centuries they have maintained their independence, first of Spain, then of the Spanish republics which succeeded Spain. They have cultivated oratory and poetry and the arts of peace, and have obtained not only from the Spaniards, who failed to subdue them, but from other observers also, the reputation of being generous, humane, courteous, hospitable, benevolent, and grateful. A South American kingdom of noble savages governed by a philanthropic French lawyer with a Roman title, would indeed be a political curiosity.

—The committee for the celebration in Florence of the fourth centenary of Michael Angelo (born March 6, 1474) have made public those portions of their programme which relate to the literary and artistic features of the celebration. They have decided to print in a luxurious edition Michael Angelo's complete correspondence, as well as his biography, and all the documents, both published and unpublished, that relate either to his life or to his works. Artists everywhere are to be invited to send in designs illustrating remarkable events in his life, and these are first to be photographed for publication and then collected in an album for preservation in some public library or museum. It is also proposed to reproduce, by photography, all the works of Michael Angelo in sculpture and painting, as well as the most important of his drawings. It would seem as if little remained to be done in this direction. The works of Michael Angelo that have not been photographed, either

by Braun or by Philpot & Jackson, or by other well-known art-publishers in Europe, must be of slight importance. Other projects of the committee are the striking of a commemorative medal; the affixing of memorial tablets to the house at Caprese, in the Casentino, where Michael Angelo was born, and to the house at Settignano, where he was put to nurse; finally, and this the most important of all, the placing of his statue of "David" (recently removed, July 30, from the Piazza della Signoria to the Belle Arti) in the "Tribune" of the Uffizi, where it is proposed to surround it with casts of all his principal works in sculpture. This last proposition has, it seems to us, little to recommend it. The floor of the Tribune—not a large room at the best—is already crowded with its five marble statues (the *Venus de Medici*, the "Venus of the Tribune," alone deserves the honors of the place); but, even if there were room enough, it is no place for statues much larger than life, as nearly all Michael Angelo's are. The "David," for instance, is nearly fifteen feet high. Besides, as all the principal works of the great sculptor, except the "Moses" and the "Pietà" at Rome, and the "Prisoners" or "Slaves" in the Louvre, are in Florence, what need of encumbering the beautiful Tribune with disproportioned and useless casts?

—"Ein Tag aus dem Leben des Königs Darius," by Prof. Ferdinand Jünti, in the collection of popular scientific essays by Virchow and Holtzendorff (Berlin: Carl Habel; New York: L. W. Schmidt), attempts a picture of the court of Darius I. The essay gives numerous details of the retinue of the court, their dress and food; some account of their way of passing the day of a festival, and of the architecture of Persepolis. We miss a reference to the Persian religion, the more as the day chosen for the picture celebrated the god Mithra. The tiara, besides the usual definition, is described by late writers as a covering for the head enveloping the temples and mouth; the mosaic of the Battle of Issus represents the Persian king with such a tiara drawn over his head-dress and covering his chin. The same form occurs on Parthian monuments. Another number of the same series gives a lively biography of Wallenstein, by Prof. Bernhard Kugler. Wallenstein resembles Maurice of Saxony in deserting his early evangelical companions to gain authority with the King, and in turning against his benefactor after accomplishing this object. Maurice, however, could reckon upon the loyalty of his country in carrying out his plans; the army would not follow Wallenstein. Wallenstein's character is still, owing to his obscure ways of speech, in some points uncertain; but his negotiations with Sweden are held to have been really treasonable. The delay before Nuremberg was strategy.

—The rather ostentatious friendship a few years ago between the United States and Russia, which to the English seemed very unnatural, as between a republic and a pure despotism, but which we were fond of explaining by the policy of Russia in regard to our civil war, no doubt had some connection with the similarity of situation as regards emancipation. The emancipation of the American slaves and of the Russian serfs came at very nearly the same time, and with good reason served to draw the two nations nearer together. The connection ought not to end here with a sentimental sympathy, but each nation should learn from the other's failures and successes how to deal with its own problems. The elements are nearly the same in both cases—an immense body of poor and ignorant freedmen suddenly invested with citizenship in the face of a small, cultivated, and haughty aristocracy. By direct enactment in the one case, by the irresistible force of circumstances in the other, these emancipated classes have become land-owners, with results not far from the same in the two cases. A pamphlet by Herr von Wurtemberger, entitled "Die gegenwärtigen Agrarverhältnisse Russlands," discusses the state of things in Russia from the point of view of a German landed proprietor. He is, as might be expected, opposed to peasant proprietorship, and shows great ignorance as to the historical character of the Russian communities, considering, for example, the periodical redistribution of land as a novel and artificial feature. From whatever point of view, however, the discussion is interesting and timely; the unfavorable effects of the change upon agriculture are described in terms which would apply fairly enough to parts of the South, and which will remind readers of Turgenev's novels of some of his descriptions. On the whole, the view here presented of the prospects of Russian agriculture is more gloomy than we fancy would be appropriate to the South. The remedy proposed is perhaps too elaborate for application to American society, but seems every way adapted to Europe. In lack of the organized agricultural groups which are characteristic of European countries, he urges a systematic division of great estates, or portions of them, into moderate farms, to be leased for long terms to the most thrifty peasants, in such a way that the proprietor shall still retain a certain control over the system of cultivation, and that these farms shall serve as model farms to the mass of the peasants. A leading object is the development of a middle class, in which Slavonic countries are on the whole deficient.

—According to the Calcutta correspondence of the *London Times*, there is a gratifying increase in the production of native literature in India. An act passed some years ago furnished the means of estimating this productiveness by requiring the registration of every book and pamphlet, as well as of every press and printer. Moreover, "three copies of each book must be sold to the Government," in noticeable contrast with the English and American practice, under the copyright law, of appropriating without pay from two to five copies. And, finally, "a catalogue of the works is published quarterly in each local gazette, and every year the whole are, or ought to be, reviewed by the Director of Public Instruction." The writer selects for special comment the statistics of the Punjab and of Bengal. The former province is much the more backward of the two, its native publications averaging about 300 a year, against 900 in Bengal. Here, out of 1,937 Oriental works published in the four years closing with 1871, 1,600 were in the ordinary Bengalee—proof that "there is no need in this, as in other provinces, to offer state rewards for the encouragement of vernacular literature." Indeed, "the copyright of a good school-book is a fortune," as such have been known to reach an edition of 100,000. For the right to publish a geography, not less than £500 has been offered and refused. It is no wonder, therefore, that many a learned Pundit "finds the compilation of school-books pay him better than books which would permanently enrich the language and benefit the country." In the period alluded to, there appeared 118 elementary readers, 55 of a higher grade, 73 classical tales of ancient India, 56 books of verse for school use, 10 dictionaries, 44 grammars, 43 political and 3 physical geographies, 28 school histories, 45 arithmetics, 11 books on metaphysics, 9 on physics, and 11 on physiology and hygiene. In Bengal, as in the Punjab, religious works exceed those of fiction, though outnumbered by "poetry." They are, of course, largely controversial. Out of 253, 91 are Christian, 5 Mussulman, 77 Hindu, 38 of the Baistal sect, and 44 Brahmo.

BAGEHOT'S ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.*

MR. BAGEHOT has written a new and interesting introduction to his well-known work, giving his impressions as to the visible and probable results of the changes wrought in the English Constitution by the legislation which has taken place since 1867, the year in which the first edition appeared. As regards the most important piece of this legislation—the last extension of the suffrage—he says its effects are not yet fully revealed; indeed, it is as yet hardly possible to anticipate them with any approach to accuracy. What he calls the "deserter" element in English politics—that is, the willingness of voters to leave the management of affairs in the hands of the rich and educated class, and to confine themselves to choosing between issues selected and presented by "their betters"—was not seriously weakened by the Reform Bill of 1832, so that that bill really did not produce any striking or palpable change in the machinery of English politics. It altered the mode in which the House of Commons was filled, but did not change the men who filled it. Mr. Bagehot thinks the class which the Act of 1867 admitted to the franchise decidedly an ignorant and politically incompetent class, which has as yet made no impression on politics, because it does not know its own power. "We have not," he says, "enfranchised a class less needing to be guided by their betters than the old class; on the contrary, the new class needs it more than the old. The real question is, Will they submit to it; will they defer in the same way to wealth and rank, and to the higher qualities of which these are the rough symbols and the common accompaniments?"

He thinks the answer to this must depend largely on the tact and discretion displayed by the higher class of English politicians in preparing issues and soliciting votes. Should the upper classes in the two great parties throw aside all scruple in making promises, for the sake of winning popular support, or should they raise questions of a social character which are calculated either to excite extravagant expectations as to what may be done for the poor by legislation, or to array the poor as a body in hostility to the rich among such constituencies as now hold the ballot in England, he thinks the Act will prove "a great calamity to the whole nation."

The effect of the Reform Bill of 1832 on the composition of the House of Commons was retarded by the prolonged survival and influence of the leading statesmen of the "pre-32" period—Palmerston, Russell, and Derby, for instance. These statesmen having died or disappeared from the political arena, the Act of 1867 has completed the change which that of 1832 only began. The spirit of the House of Commons is no longer aristocratic but plutocratic; its most prominent statesmen are not men of ancient descent or great hereditary estate, but of substantial means, and connected more or less

with the new trading wealth. But the plutoerats are, nevertheless, very fond of the aristocrats, imitate them, and desire to be of them. Mr. Bagehot thinks it would be very unwise for the latter to repulse this humble worship. They ought, on the contrary, to receive the new-comers cordially, and make common cause with them. It would be a terrible misfortune if the two classes should ever be found bidding against each other for the votes of the workingmen. Moreover, this union is necessary if the House of Lords is to be preserved. That House will not, he thinks, be overthrown except in a storm, but it is folly to suppose that the same storm would leave the present settlement of landed property untouched. He thinks the *Alabama* case has demonstrated the desirableness of such a change in the mode of making treaties as will compel their submission to the legislature before ratification. The acrimonious criticism which is now bestowed on treaties in the House of Commons after they are made, and which often has so irritating an effect on the powers with which they have been made, would not be heard if there was a possibility that a change of ministry on it would throw the job into the hands of the Opposition. The fear of responsibility would sober it.

Turning to the foreign illustrations of the views propounded in the first edition, Mr. Bagehot cites the French Republic under Thiers as a proof of the feasibility of the nomination of the chief executive officer by the vote of the National Assembly in a non-monarchical state, something of which he had much difficulty in persuading people when he wrote his book. But he observes, and, as events have shown, truly, that the experiment was tried in France under very unfavorable conditions, partly owing to the want of "rationality" among French politicians—i.e., "not reasoning power, but the power of hearing the reasons of others, comparing them quietly with one's own reasons, and being guided by the result"—which makes debating in French parliamentary bodies almost impossible; and partly owing to the small amount of check imposed on the French Assembly by the French nation. M. Thiers, he predicted, would stay in office as long as his office lasted, and that his dismissal would "be a change of polity, and might bring in a monarchy or empire"—a very accurate description of what has actually happened since Mr. Bagehot wrote.

Turning to America, he makes some observations which we commend to the attention of Mr. Gamaliel Bradford. He points out that, while the weak point of parliamentary government is instability in policy, the weak point of presidential government is that under it you cannot secure thorough or fruitful discussion of any subject in the legislature. If members of the legislature were philosophers you might. But they are not philosophers; they are commonplace men, with but an indifferent interest in questions, and a very strong one in their personal fortunes. If, therefore, a debate was a real attack on the Government, and might end in an adverse vote and a consequent change of ministry, the legislators would throw their whole faculties into it, and the country would listen to them eagerly. But when it can produce no effect whatever on the fortunes of the men in power, nobody cares much about it; the speeches are poor, and the public never thinks of reading them, and legislation is not influenced by them. All this he illustrates by the history of the financial legislation of the United States since 1861, and, one must admit, with great force.

RECENT NOVELS.*

WE took great pleasure the other day in reading and praising a new novel by a new writer, "Under the Greenwood Tree," namely, by Mr. Thomas Hardy, and it was with considerable curiosity that we took up "A Pair of Blue Eyes," a later and rather more ambitious story by the same author. The first-named was so different from the familiar novels which crowd the shelves of the circulating library, it was so fresh and natural, and so amusing, that it serves as a high standard by which the author's subsequent productions have to be judged. But in any such comparison, full allowance should be made for the difference in the styles of composition, for the first story is hardly more than a sketch, drawn to be sure with great care, but without the laboriousness of effort which a novel requires, while "A Pair of Blue Eyes" has all the machinery of a full-grown romance—the

* "A Pair of Blue Eyes. A Novel. By Thomas Hardy, author of 'Under the Greenwood Tree,' etc." New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

"Ingo. The First Novel of a Series entitled 'Our Forefathers.' By Gustav Freytag, author of 'Debit and Credit,' 'The Lost Manuscript,' etc. Translated from the German by Mrs. Malcolm." New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

"He Cometh not." She Said. A Novel. By Annie Thomas (Mrs. Pender Cudlip). New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

"My Little Girl. A Novel. By the authors of 'Ready-Money Mortiboy.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

"The Wicked Woods of Toberevil. By Miss Mulholland, author of 'Hester's History,' etc. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

"Driven from the Path. A Novel. Edited by Dr. Charles Smart." New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

"Old Kensington. By Miss Thackeray." New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

"Innocent. By Mrs. Oliphant." New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

young heroine, the rival lovers, plenty of side-characters to fill the background of the stage, and a problem of human nature to be set clearly before the reader with all its far-reaching complications. In this case, the heroine is a girl with a somewhat intricate character—intricate, however, from its shallowness rather than from its depth. She is loving and attractive, and, it must be said, by no means backward in claiming admiration. Her main fault is timidity, the timidity of youth and inexperience. She has no mother to advise her, she has had no training to strengthen her, and the consequence is that where a craftier woman would have acted more wisely and have made herself out better than she really was, she hesitates, is fearful of the truth, and is crushed by the sternness of the man who takes her silence for shame and her piecemeal disclosures for detected guilt. Her story is as follows: At an early age she falls headlong in love with a young man who is of humble birth, and to whom her father objects on that account, and takes steps towards a secret marriage with him, but at the last moment her courage fails her, she sees how serious a matter it is, and she goes back home, promising to love him during his long absence in India. While he is away, his best friend appears and falls in love with her and she with him. She conceals from him the previous incidents of her life from fear of displeasing him, and certainly the way in which she has treated her earlier lover is one which she might very naturally wish forgotten. She is faithless to her first lover and cowardly to the second, who may well be excused for his hardness when we consider how much she tried to blind him, and how natural it is to exaggerate the badness of a fault that is not confessed with candor. He breaks with her, and the novel ends in a very peculiar, original, and heart-breaking way, which we will not here reveal.

In several ways the story is a clever one; it is often injured, however, by certain faults. Many of the talks are amusing, especially those in which the country-people are introduced, but the characters of higher birth are less entertaining. The plot is not over-well managed, and, to our thinking, the heroine might without harm have been made a little coyer. Her step-mother is well-drawn, but the two men stand in a rather improbable relation to one another, and their talk together about the girl they both love is neither very dignified nor very natural. Still, in spite of these blemishes, the novel is very well worth reading, and it is one that will tempt discussion about the quantity of moral guilt to be ascribed to the different characters; though fully to enjoy it one must be willing to overlook the slips of taste, which occasionally give an unintentional bad flavor to the book. The humorous parts, although they hardly belong to the story, are almost without exception very readable. We await a third novel of this author, which we see announced, with considerable interest.

Another volume of the 'Leisure Hours Series' is Gustav Freytag's 'Ingo,' in an English translation. It is the beginning of a series which shall sugar German history with a coating of fiction; and what the result is when a German novel-writer—and even so clever a man as Freytag—announces beforehand that he is going to be instructive as well as entertaining, any one on whom German novels have palled can judge for himself. In the present instance, our author had the heavy task of making the fourth century of the Christian era interesting. That the historical parts are accurate one can be tolerably sure from what he knows of Freytag, but students of early German history will prefer other books for investigation, and the effeminate novel-reader would, we fear, so far forget the necessity of culture as to read the advertisements in the daily papers in preference to such pages as the following:

"We are at peace with Romans and Alemanni," he said at last, causally; "and we Thuringians do not fear the might of Caesar. But thou thyself, as I perceive, wast in the neighborhood when the battle was fought, and thou hast since then avoided the villages of the Kattens, who, as thou sayest, are inclined towards the Romans. I do not ask thee to whom thou hast wished the victory."

"I give information without questions," exclaimed the stranger, proudly. "I have not taken Roman pay."

"A ray of kindness shot from the eyes of the chief. 'Thou art not an Alemann,' he said; 'from thy speech thou art one of the children of our gods, who dwell far in the east.'

"A Vandal from the Oder" replied the stranger, hastily," etc., etc., etc.

"He Cometh Not," She Said,' is the touching and suggestive title of a poor novel by Mrs. Pender Cudlip, who is better known under her maiden name of Annie Thomas. The plot is absurdly impossible. There are two Philip Fletchers—one good, the other bad and fascinating, whom all the women find irresistible; and the novel tells the story of the bad one pretending to be the good one, and the complications to which this gives rise. There is, however, nothing worse in the novel than its utter silliness; and perhaps it may be recommended to people who are recovering from a severe illness, and who are still too weak to enjoy anything really good.

As disagreeable a book as one often finds is 'My Little Girl,' a novel manufactured by the authors of 'Ready-Money Mortiboy.' It is a story reeking in its most innocent passages with brandy-and-soda, and with accounts of black mistresses, mock marriages, illegitimacy, gambling, horse-racing, and every form of evil-doing, which cannot fail to have a bad effect upon readers who may mistake its vulgarity for profound knowledge of the world, and its offensive description of human degradation for a valuable picture of human nature and civilized society. It is, in fact, a shocking book; and it is not rendered more tolerable by the mock jocoseness and artificial sentiment with which it is filled.

'The Wicked Woods of Tobereevil,' in spite of its more ominous title, is an inoffensive work. It is even better than that—it is a story with a plot on which considerable pains have apparently been spent; it is well written, and, although the people are something like old acquaintances, there is a certain ingenuity in the way they are handled which makes this book quite readable. It will never be known as an English classic, but it holds a very fair place among decidedly second or third rate novels.

How much the writing of one novel aids the writing of another, by introducing a conventional type of human beings and an imaginary style of emotions, both of which are readily imitated by different writers, may be seen in numberless instances. For an example, we need not go further than to the novel just mentioned and to 'Driven from the Path.' The last-named seems to have been written with a good deal of care, but with very little else that goes to the composition of a readable story. It is an account of the life of a young Scotchman who leaves his unhappy home to go to sea. In time he reaches this country, and sees a great deal of life in the far West. He enlists in our army, has adventures with the Indians and Mexicans, serves against the South, and finally marries a very flippant young lady of New York, who bears a strong likeness to the bewitching heroine of 'Never Again.' Not always, however, is he busy in right-doing. In the course of his checkered life he has a good deal of experience with its dark corners, although, happily, this part is never dwelt on. There is, too, a villain in the story, who smokes, drinks, disbelieves in a revealed religion, and generally misconducts himself. Perhaps the best thing in it is the account of the hardships of our soldiers on the frontier, which bears the mark of having been written by one who knows his ground well. The poorest part is the love-making and the occasional side-talk of the author to an imaginary friend. It is not every writer who is as interesting as Fielding when he lays the story down for a few minutes and chats with the reader.

We hope that we are not too dilatory in our mention of Miss Thackeray's 'Old Keusington,' which needs no words of ours to commend it to a host of readers. It is a more ambitious story than any she has yet written; and if it is inferior to her 'Story of Elizabeth,' which reads like truth itself, it may yet be deserving of praise. The story is long and quiet; the plot is ingenious, though perhaps a trifle artificial; but the characters are all well-drawn, and the whole novel is marked by a repose which is never dulness. Miss Thackeray always draws young girls and children well, and here, with the honest, frank girl in contrast with her crafty friend, her usual skill does not desert her. Dorothea's earnest and affectionate nature is admirably described. Especially good is the way in which is told the gradual decay of her love for Robert Henley, as she sees him grow up, and she gets a clearer view of his vanity and selfishness. The story abounds, too, in clever, but not too clever, remarks about the different characters, and of delicate descriptions of scenes and places.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Innocent,' on the other hand, we cannot commend. The heroine who gives her name to the novel is not, to our thinking, a successfully drawn character. There is little to attract in her mysterious ignorance of the ways of the world, and the weak and bad Frederick's mysterious knowledge of those ways. The plot is, in fact, rather disagreeable, not to mention the vulgar people who figure in it. In everything Mrs. Oliphant writes there is a great probability that there will be something very good, as her humor and observation seldom wholly desert her, and in this book the relations to one another of the Eastwood family is well, though not amusingly told. Probably the reason of Mrs. Oliphant's unevenness in her stories is the speed with which she composes them. Mr. Anthony Trollope seems to be almost the only living writer who can write all the time, and keep very near the same level; but of course it is the height of the level which determines the difficulty of the task.

Saggio delle opere di Leonardo da Vinci. (New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—Under this modest title Signor Carlo Belgiojoso has edited for the Royal Academy of Fine Arts in Milan, of which he is the president, twenty-four specimen sheets from the volume of autographs and drawings by Leonardo—

the famous 'Codex Atlanticus'—one of the chief treasures of the Ambrosian Library. The present publication is intended to commemorate the meeting of the Art Congress held at Milan in 1872. The meeting of the previous year had been held at Parma, and the honors of the occasion had been specially paid to the memory of Correggio. In proposing to hold the next meeting at Milan, that city was declared to be selected because it was for so many years the chosen home of Leonardo; and the Minister of Public Instruction, Signor Cesare Correnti, advised the Academy that, since Raffaello and Michael Angelo, Rome and Florence, had yielded place to Leonardo, Milan ought to see to it that something was done to justify this preference. Signor Correnti had suggested to the Academy as the greatest honor they could pay to the memory of Da Vinci, the publication of an *editio princeps* of his works, but the difficulties in the way of such an undertaking seeming insuperable for the present, it was decided to publish a selection from the Ambrosian volume, accompanied by dissertations on the life and genius of the artist. The present volume is the result of the labors of those distinguished members of the Academy who were named as commissioners by Signor Correnti to take charge of the publication. After a preface by Signor Carlo Belgioioso, giving a history of the undertaking, there follow a "Biographical Sketch of Leonardo," by Signor G. Mongeri; "Leonardo as Man-of-Letters and Man-of-Science," by Signor Gilberto Govi, the most succinct, methodical, yet exhaustive account of Leonardo's performances in these fields that we are acquainted with; "Leonardo as Sculptor and Painter," by Signor Camillo Boito, another excellent essay, written with soberness and impartial accuracy. The author shows a critical acquaintance with everything that has been written on the subject of Leonardo from Vasari down to the latest French or German essayist. Then follow the plates, printed in photolithography, by the process of Angelo Della Croce, of Milan, adopted by the commission after a careful examination of all the methods by which a fac-simile reproduction could be hoped for.

It would be impossible in a brief notice to give a particular account of these plates. They are introduced by a fac-simile of the famous letter written by Leonardo to the Duke of Milan (Lodovico il Moro) offering his services, and detailing his accomplishments as mechanician and engineer as well as architect, sculptor, and painter and worker in bronze. It may be noted, in passing, that of all the many specimens of Leonardo's handwriting contained in this volume, this is almost the only one which is not written backward, and which is comparatively free from abbreviations and traces of cryptography. This would seem to be an argument against the theory of those who, like Paciolo, explain this singular handwriting by the alleged fact that Leonardo was left-handed. It would seem that he could write like the rest of the world when he would, and he probably adopted this Oriental way of writing, with the additional inconveniences of abbreviations, omissions, and alterations, deliberately, for the purpose of concealment. The drawings that follow the letter to the Duke relate, with but few exceptions, to mechanical inventions. They are all accompanied with explanations in Leonardo's hand, written against each portion of the drawing that needs interpreting, exactly as in a Japanese picture. Here are the canal-lock, and the machine for digging a canal and making the banks at the same time, both of which, we believe, are ascribed as inventions to Leonardo. Then come machines for raising water, among them one in which the Archimedean screw is curiously employed; a drawing showing how mouths may be made for the extraction of water from a canal for irrigation, when the water is at different heights (the "inch of water" of California and Italy?); a curious speculation, with an accompanying sketch-map, as to the means to be employed to bring the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea, and the ocean to the same level; and on the same sheet an admirably clear drawing of a machine for cutting files, concerning which Professor G. Colombo, after saying that the conception of this machine is very remarkable when we consider the condition of machinery at that day, goes on to observe that, until within a few years, the operation of file-cutting was always a manual operation, performed with a hammer and a chisel, but that when machines were first introduced the method of working employed was not by percussion, but by abrasion, as if with a graver. The motive-power of Leonardo's machine is a weight regulated by a crank; this moves two cog-wheels, one of which pushes along, with a regular motion by means of a screw, the block to which the piece of iron that is to be a file is fastened, while the other works up and down, like a trip-hammer, the cutter fastened to a long handle. Here, as in almost all Leonardo's mechanical contrivances, and, as Signor Colombo acutely remarks, in almost all first attempts to substitute machinery for the human hand, the actual implement employed and the movements of the hand are imitated, whereas, as every such machine is brought to perfection, the natural processes, to call them so, are one by one eliminated, and purely artificial, mechanical movements are substituted. Further on, we find a flying-bridge to be

built before a pursuing or after a retreating enemy, with several ways of tying the tree-trunks of which it is composed so as not to waste cord; and a remarkable drawing of a *balista*, a sort of machine which seems to have interested Leonardo greatly, since there are several designs here for making them. The reader will do well to compare this drawing with one of a similar machine (with a different motive-power, however), given by Viollet-le-Due ('Dictionnaire de l'Architecture,' article "Engin"), and drawn by him from sketches found in the album of Villard de Honnecourt. The resemblance is singularly striking. A more remarkable *balista* is given in Plate XI., where we find the principle of the "revolver" oddly enough applied. In this plate we have not only Leonardo's completed drawing of the machine, with the figures of the men that move it cleverly drawn, but also his rough sketch of the thing, where we seem to see him scratching about on the paper with his pen as he works out the crude idea. The operators of this machine are protected by just such a screen working on a pivot as is shown in Viollet-le-Due (vol. v., p. 256). In Plate XII. is a design, rather amusing than feasible, for shoving off the ladders of the besiegers from a city wall, and on the same sheet a derrick, such as any Irish laborer would hail as an old acquaintance if he were to see it. Next in importance is a machine for shearing the nap of cloth, though we ought not to pass unnoticed a plate showing several methods of communicating motion in different directions by cogged wheels. One of the best drawings in the book is that of a machine for sawing marble; it is very complete, and abundant drawings are given for all the details. Two pages are nearly filled with notes and drawings to illustrate the means of flying, a matter that at one time greatly occupied Leonardo's thoughts. He wrote a treatise on the subject of the flight of birds, which still exists in a private library in Italy. In the corner of one of these sheets is a notion which curiously enough has occurred to some one in our century. It is a rough sketch of a lamp—for all the world like a carcel-lamp—the globe of which being filled with water "a great light will be produced," says Leonardo. A shop-window in Broadway has lately been lighted by horizontal fish-tail burners placed over hemispherical bowls of glass filled with water, by which means a light at once brilliant and diffused is thrown upon the goods below.

These hints of its contents will give the reader a notion of the work. The mode of publication is not very satisfactory. Three hundred copies only have been printed, of which the Italian Government has taken two hundred, thus leaving but one hundred to be distributed among the public of Europe and America. Only one copy has thus far reached this country, and we understand that not more than six copies can be placed at the disposal of the importers. Under these circumstances the price, \$27 in currency, cannot be considered high, but it is to be regretted that the genius of Da Vinci, constantly occupied in schemes for the material improvement of society, could not have been honored by a more popular edition of this selection from his sketches.

The Young Lady's Friend. Edited and Revised by the Authoress of 'Unsettled Points of Etiquette.' With preface and introduction by the editress. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—This book was better known a generation ago than it is likely to be again, though for many reasons the loss of popularity is to be regretted. It was written by a lady of Cambridge, Mass., whose incognito the present editress, as she chooses to call herself, still preserves, and was published in Boston in 1837. The motive for republishing the 'Young Lady's Friend' at this time is stated in the new introduction to be, among other reasons, the belief that it will prove "a most valuable auxiliary to mothers" in education, treating, as it does, of topics that belong to a daughter's education, such as preservation of health, improvement of time, dress, behavior to parents, relatives, gentlemen, teachers, friends, and to domestics, conduct at public places, female companionship; dinner and evening parties; ceremonious and friendly visits; conversation and mental culture. Napoleon once said to Madame Campan: "The old systems of education are good for nothing; what is wanted in order to train up young people properly in France?" "Mothers," said Madame Campan. This word struck the Emperor. "Right," said the great codifier and educator; "therein lies a complete system of education, and it must be your endeavor, Madame, to form mothers who know how to educate their children." Through mothers also the editress of the present volume would work upon the generations to come.

If we divide theories and treatises on the education of young ladies into two kinds, one of them being founded on the opinion that what is good in a girl must be put into her by her parents, guardians, godfathers, or godmothers; and the other, founded on the opinion that only harmonious development of all the faculties through the agencies of love and sympathy is needed, the 'Young Lady's Friend' would belong decidedly to both classes. It cannot be

said to push the first theory to the extent to which it was pushed by the great mistress of the school. Miss Edgeworth, whose books are apt nowadays to convey to an intelligent child the impression that good education means a combination of duress and fraud; indeed, this book, being intended for young ladies and young ladies' mothers, is necessarily conceived in a different spirit from the 'Early Lessons' and 'Rosamond.' The author of the 'Young Lady's Friend,' too, was apparently of a more humane, not to say human, and sympathetic disposition, than her English predecessor. Still, with all their differences, the book is partly cast in the Edgeworthian mould. If the mould is to be judged by what it has moulded, it might fairly be considered a new feather in Miss Edgeworth's cap that her writings should have been the efficient cause of a good part of the contents of this little hand-book. There is a good deal in it that is laughable, but most of it is laughable rather because the ideas of the world on the subject of education have become less serious than they were a generation ago; because the relation of parent and child has so greatly altered its character; and because most young ladies "between the age of fifteen and twenty" among the richer and more cultivated classes—to use the words of the author—as soon as they are old enough "to reflect upon their own characters, to consider in what respects they are weak, in what they are strong; to perceive their own deficiencies, and to wish to supply them," instead of applying themselves to the study of manuals for the conduct of life or being brought into habits of intimate communion with and taught to seek frequent counsel from "well-educated, judicious, and experienced mothers," begin usually to give themselves over to reflections of a very different kind, which tend to leave them, when they are at length married, with far more defined and precise notions about the relative merits of rival dressmakers, party-givers, noted german-leaders, and music-masters, than they have about the management of a household, and a much deeper interest in having dainty, elevated, and refined and poetic spirits, than in becoming good wives and mothers. Or else they begin as soon as possible to qualify themselves for admission to the sisterhood founded, we believe, by Miss Carolina Wilhelmina Amelia Skeggs, and brought to perfection in these latter days of French Imperialistic training-schools, American shoddy, and English loudness.

To be sure, this is an old song. There are, no doubt, a few select households left which keep alive the traditions of the elder time, in which no countenance is given either to the shocking thought, apparently well fixed in the mind of the "Authoress of 'Unsettled Points of Etiquette,'" that it is the "mission of America to vulgarize the world," or to the fancy that all that is needed to make the world go round is a well-filled library and pretty tastes. In such households as these the 'Young Lady's Friend' will be a "valuable auxiliary" to good mothers.

We are obliged to confess, however, that the general effect of the book is a little marred by the occasional introduction of illustrations and suggestions which are really amusing from their exaggerated gravity, or grave exaggeration, whichever it is. On page 182, for instance, is the heart-rending tale of a neglected aunt, told for the purpose of inculcating the necessity of respectful and affectionate treatment of relatives. The author says that she knows a family of very good people who err through thinking that they have a right to treat their relatives with great familiarity; the young ladies have aunts not much older than themselves—single ladies, and often invited to their sister's house; but, through the careless behavior of mother and daughters, these visits are "anything but agreeable." One of the aunts is invited to spend the day, pressed to come early, and spoken to as if her nieces expected to find real pleasure in her society. "She goes accordingly on the appointed day; both nieces are out, and so is their mother." Full of engagements, they do not return till time to dress for dinner; she amuses herself as she can "in the empty drawing-rooms, and perhaps wishes herself at home again." At dinner the assembling of the family is pleasant, the greetings affectionate, and now the aunt hopes to have a sociable time (the nieces would perhaps say a "good time") for the rest of the visit; but the ladies have scarcely retired to the drawing-room before one niece pleads an engagement; the other, who always lies down after dinner, retires to her room; and the mother, who is left, has so many notes to write and accounts to settle, that she is no company for her sister, "and again the unhappy guest wishes herself at home." At tea-time all assemble, except one niece, "who never takes tea, and always reads history at that hour." After tea, "all are going to a concert, and have provided no ticket for the aunt, as they thought she would prefer going home early." "The blank surprise in the face of the aunt" causes several offers of tickets, and the mother says one of the girls will be happy to stay at home and give up her ticket to her aunt, but such offers are not to be accepted; and this slighted relative returns home alienated from her family by their want of common politeness, and resolving that it shall be long before she will again leave her pleasant home to be so treated.

This tale of the alienated aunt the editress would do well to strike out from any future editions of this really sensible book; *ne quid nimis* is a good rule, even in the instruction of so reckless a class as nieces.

A History of Greek and Roman Classical Literature. By Rev. A. Louage, Professor of Ancient Classical Literature at Notre Dame University, Indiana. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.)—Professor Louage's manual has many merits, and is as good as could be expected in a book which professes to be nothing more than a compilation from very second-rate authorities. The sketches of the several authors are for the most part very well done, with good judgment and in an interesting manner, and the book will undoubtedly do good service as a text-book. It is, however, rather a series of such sketches than a consecutive history of literature; the several authors are well and sufficiently delineated, but the history of the literature proper—its development at successive periods—is meagre and inadequate. No doubt, the matter given is that which is most needful to the class of students for whom the book is designed; the other, however, ought not to be neglected.

We find a few errors and a few misprints. *Choephoroi* (p. 53) is printed *Chæphori*; *Æmilius Paulus* (p. 132) is called *Aemilianus*; for *Lex Semproniana* (p. 139) we find *Semproniana*; on the same page the great orator M. Antonius receives the cognomen *Crassus*; *Glabrio* is printed *Glubrio* (p. 134); the prænomen *Decimus* is twice written *Decius*.

Whoever at the present day touches the great Pelasgian controversy does so at his peril, and here, as might be expected, Professor Louage has come to grief. Indeed, his ethnology is throughout astonishing. The Pelasgi "were allied to the Iranian tribes in the North of India, and consequently that element in the Greek language which exhibits an affinity for the Sanscrit is the Pelasgian"; while of the Hellenes, "this element of the Greek language is said to have had an affinity to the Persian" (p. 13). Still more wonderful is this (p. 109): "The old Roman language was a compound of Oscian and Pelasgian, the languages of the two peoples who first occupied Italy. The first is of German origin; the Oscans came from Lithuania. The second is of Asiatic origin, as we know." Hardly better is what is said of the Etruscans (p. 115): "Most of the poets [of the Romans] came from Etruria . . . it is clear that in everything mental and spiritual their neighbors, the Etruscans, were their teachers. . . . To this pure culture the old Roman character owed its vigor, its honesty, and its incorruptible sternness." The queer combination, "honesty and incorruptible sternness," is probably a slip of the pen, for the style is generally correct. In one expression of the preface, and hardly anywhere else, do we find traces of the author's being of foreign birth: "Too extensive, and not systematic enough, in order to be given as a text-book." We think that the author hardly does justice to the character of Socrates, while that of Cicero he rates too high: "Antiquity may be challenged to produce an individual so virtuous and so perfectly amiable as Cicero" (p. 172). The illustrations—portrait busts—are disgracefully bad; we should be loth to believe that the great writers of antiquity were such fearful-looking objects.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Bartholomew (G. K.), <i>A Latin Gradual</i>	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) \$3 75
Beadle (J. H.), <i>The Undeveloped West</i>	(National Pub. Co.)
Beiot (A.), Article 47: a Tale.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Biographie des Musiciens Célèbres.....	(Schoenhof & Moeller)
Burton (J. H.), <i>History of Scotland</i> , 2d ed., Vol. V.....	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)
Castelar (E.), <i>Old Rome and New Italy</i>	(Harper & Bros.)
Cooper (T.), <i>New Biographical Dictionary</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 5 00
Connelly (Emma M.), <i>Under the Surface: a Tale</i>	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Donnelly (Elleanor C.), <i>Out of Sweet Solitude: Poetry</i>	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Daniel (Mrs. M.), <i>The Heiress in the Family</i>	(Harper & Bros.)
Fiammari (C.), <i>The Atmosphere</i>	(Macmillan & Co.)
Garretson (Dr. J. E.), <i>Thinkers and Thinking</i>	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Glover (J. W.), <i>St. Patrick at Tara: Cantata</i> , swd.....	(Dublin)
Holland (J. G.), <i>Arthur Bonnycastle: an American Novel</i>	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 75
Jebb (R. C.) and Mather (R. H.), <i>Electra of Sophocles</i>	(John Allyn) 1 50
Longfellow (H. W.), <i>Aftermath</i>	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Maclean (Rev. A. J.) and Hart (Rev. S.), <i>Thirteen Satires of Juvenal</i>	(John Allyn) 1 50
Milligan (Rev. W.) and Roberts (Rev. A.), <i>The Words of the New Testament</i>	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 2 25
Northrop (B. G.), <i>Education Abroad, and Other Papers</i>	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Old Merry's Travels on the Continent.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Practical Magazine, No. 8, swd.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 00
Rawlinson (Rev. G.), <i>Historical Illustrations of the Old Testament</i>	(Henry A. Young & Co.)
Reade (C.), <i>A Simpleton</i>	(Harper & Bros.)
Reynolds (G. W. M.), <i>Kenneth: a Tale</i> , swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 00
Robinson (W. S.), <i>The Salary Grab</i> , swd.....	(Lee & Shepard)
Stillé (Dr. A.), <i>Epidemic or Malignant Cholera</i> , swd.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Simcox (G. A.), <i>Thirteen Satires of Juvenal</i>	(John Allyn) 1 50
Thompson (Rev. J. P.), <i>Church and State in the United States</i>	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Trench (Rev. R. C.), <i>Plutarch: his Life, Lives, and Morals</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Venable (W. H.), <i>The School Stage</i>	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)
Wallace (Gen. L.), <i>The Fair God: a Tale</i>	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 15.

LAST week was what might be truly termed a lively one in Wall Street. On Monday, the 8th, the announcement was made that the New York Warehouse and Security Co. was in trouble, which soon proved to be true; it was ascertained that their troubles were brought about by making large advances on railroad paper endorsed by certain individuals, among them Messrs. Francis Skiddy and Sheppard Gandy. These gentlemen were forced to suspend, and the Company is left completely in the lurch for the time being, with its own paper soon to mature, which it will be unable to meet. The above failures were followed by another and more important one on Saturday—Messrs. Kenyon Cox & Co., of which firm Mr. Daniel Drew is a general partner, and therefore liable for its debts. The suspension of Kenyon Cox & Co. was caused by their endorsing the paper of the Chicago & Canada Southern R. R. Co.—a road now in process of building, and in which Messrs. Drew, Tracy, and other capitalists are largely interested. These different failures have had a bad effect upon the Street, and quite an unsettled feeling and want of confidence has existed ever since. The suspension of Kenyon Cox & Co., it is thought, will be but temporary. The firm stood very high among Stock Exchange houses, and was almost thought to be beyond the reach of disaster, owing to the connection of Mr. Drew with the house and his great wealth.

The weekly statement of the city banks is again unfavorable. The surplus reserve is entirely lost in both State and National banks. The loss in reserve is \$3,287,400, of which \$1,962,700 was in legal tenders, which have probably been sent West.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	September 6.	September 13.	Differences.
Loans	\$288,374,200	\$284,536,200	Dec. \$3,834,000
Specie	21,767,000	20,442,300	Dec. 1,324,700
Circulation	27,355,500	27,383,400	Inc. 27,900
Deposits	212,772,700	207,817,500	Dec. 5,455,200
Legal Tenders	38,679,900	36,717,200	Dec. 1,962,700

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	September 6.	September 13.	Differences.
Specie	\$21,767,000	\$20,442,300	Dec. \$1,324,700
Legal tenders	38,679,900	36,717,200	Dec. 1,962,700
Total reserve	\$60,446,900	\$57,159,500	Dec. \$3,287,400
Circulation	27,355,500	27,383,400	Inc. 27,900
Deposits	212,772,700	207,817,500	Dec. 5,455,200
Total liabilities	\$240,128,200	\$234,700,900	Dec. \$5,427,300
25 per cent. reserve	60,032,050	58,675,225	
Excess over legal reserve	414,850		
Deficiency in 25 per cent. reserve	1,515,725		Dec. 1,930,575

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The annexed table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	\$245,117,000	\$39,419,200	\$284,536,200
Specie	17,655,300	2,786,800	20,442,300
Legal tenders	32,500,800	4,216,400	36,717,200
Deposits	177,850,500	29,467,000	207,317,500
Circulation	27,351,200	32,200	27,383,400
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	24 44-100 p.c.	23 74-100 p.c.	24 33-100 p.c.

The stock market exhibited more signs of activity, as naturally might have been expected, in view of the number of failures which have taken place. Prices on the entire list, with the exception of Wabash, have been well maintained, while Pacific Mail has taken another jump, which carried the price up to 41½ from about 41. Wabash declined 6½ per cent. from the highest quotation of the week (from 65½ Monday to 59½ Saturday), owing to the trouble in which Mr. Drew has found himself involved in Canada Southern matters, a large amount of stock being thrown upon the market Saturday. Western Union Telegraph has been very active through out the week, and the party controlling it seems disposed to advance the price to the neighborhood of par as fast as opportunity offers.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending September 13, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sal. a.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103½	104½	103½	104½	103½	103½	103½
Lake Shore	90½	91½	90½	91½	91½	90½	91
Erie	58½	58½	58½	58½	58½	59½	59½
Do. pfd.	71½	72	72	72	71½	71½	71½
Union Pacific	24½	25	25½	25½	25½	25½	25
Chi. & N. W.	59½	61	61½	60	59½	59½	59½
Do. pfd.	75½	79	79½	78	78½	78½	78
N. J. Central	101	101	101	101	101	101	100
Rock Island	103½	103½	103½	103½	103½	103½	103½
Mil. & St. Paul	46½	45	46½	46½	45½	46½	46½
Do. pfd.	69	69½	69½	69	68½	68½	68
Wabash	64½	65	66	66	65½	65½	65½
D. L. & Western	48½	50	50½	50½	50½	50½	50
B. H. & Erie	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½
O. & M.	37½	38½	38	37½	37	37½	37½
C. C. & I. C.	28½	29	29½	29½	29	29½	29½
W. U. Tel.	89½	90	89½	89½	89½	89½	89
Pacific Mail	40½	41	41½	41	41½	42½	41½

Government bonds have been quite active, owing to the call recently made by the Comptroller of the Currency on new National banks to deposit bonds in Washington in order to obtain their notes, within a limited time, or forfeit their right to have them. The German Government have recently purchased \$5,000,000 more new United States five per cent. bonds, making in all \$17,000,000 purchased thus far.

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